

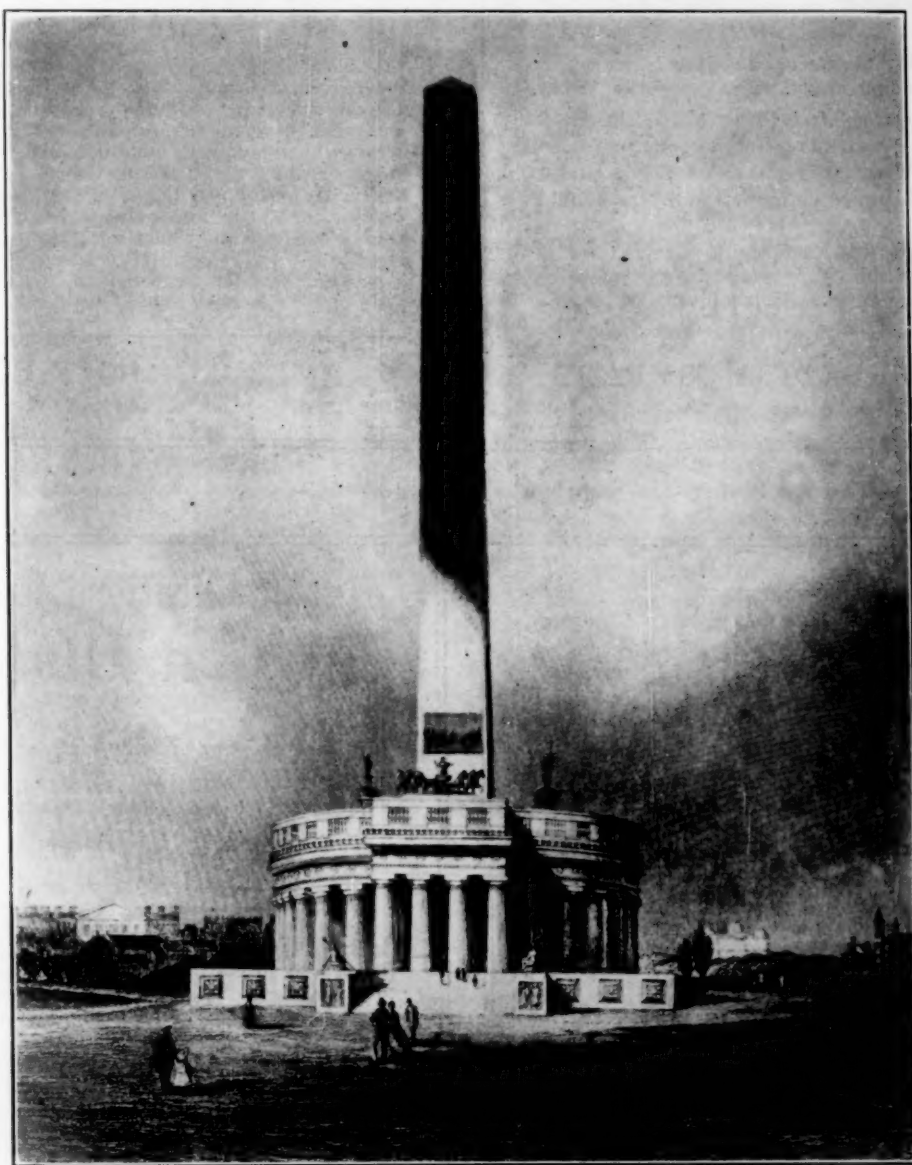
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Volume III.
Number 3.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1912.

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ORIGINAL DESIGN FOR THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT. TAKEN FROM THE OFFICIAL PROGRAM OF
THE DEDICATORY EXERCISES. SEE PAGE 50.

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
Inscribed Stones in the Washington Monument, by A. C. COLE	47
The Doctrine of Interest, by H. R. TUCKER	50
History in the Normal Schools, by C. E. PRAY.....	54
The Critical Attitude, by R. W. KELSEY	57
Editorial—What Can be Accomplished.....	58
History in the Secondary Schools:	
Some Suggestions on the Reformation, by D. C. KNOWLTON	59
English Cabinet Government, by A. M. WOLF- SON	60
Growth of United States Territory, by F. H. MILLER	61
Reports from the Historical Field, by W. H. CUSH- ING	62
Bibliography of History and Civics, by W. J. CHASE	65
Periodical Literature, by H. L. CANNON	64
Recent Publications, by C. A. COULOMB	66

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Inscribed Stones in the Washington Monument New Features in the History of the Monument

BY ARTHUR C. COLE, Ph.D., UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Rising from the banks of the Potomac in the capital city of our great republic, stands that majestic obelisk to the memory of him who was so closely, so vitally connected with its earliest beginnings, and who spoke even from the grave, words of guidance to those whose task it was to continue the work which he had so well grounded. We would like to think that it had always stood there from the time when Washington was taken to the fathers, but such was not the case. The nation shed its tears over his departure, it resolved that he was deserving to be ranked high among the immortals, then it turned to work out the weighty problems that threatened to overwhelm it in its struggling infancy. Ten days after his death Congress passed a resolution to devote the sum of two hundred thousand dollars to the erection of a marble monument in the capital. It was to bear suitable inscriptions and to be "so designed as to commemorate the great events of his military and political life." Beneath it his remains were to be entombed. But this, like a similar resolution passed as early as 1783 ordering an equestrian statue "to testify the love, admiration, and gratitude of his countrymen," was soon forgotten in the struggles of the young republic.

Perhaps the first stone to the memory of Washington was not laid until fifteen years after his death, and the incidents of this event are worthy of notice. In June, 1815, three sons of revolutionary patriots and soldiers sailed up the Potomac river to Popes Creek in the "Lady of the Lake," a fine topsail schooner of ninety tons. They landed in Westmoreland county before Washington's birth-place to which they proceeded with a small following composed of the overseer of the place and a few gentlemen whom they met on a fishing excursion. They found a few scattered bricks from the chimney of the old homestead out of which they constructed a rude pedestal. Upon this they placed the stone they had brought enveloped in the star spangled banner. It bore this inscription:

HERE
THE 11th* OF FEBRUARY, 1732
WASHINGTON
WAS BORN

After they had completed this part of the ceremony, they re-embarked, fired a salute from the cannon on board, and sailed away. It was a modest beginning, unnoticed by the country at large, but a sincere expression of the affection and patriotism of that trio.

In the early thirties, a Washington Monument Society was formed at Washington for the purpose of providing for the erection of a great national monument to the memory of the first of our presidents, one that should number among the world's most famous structures. For that reason an obelisk six hundred feet high was selected as proportionate to the character of its subject—the loftiest in the world. On the role of its members were many of the leading statesmen of the day and the list of its presidents included ex-

*Old Style.

President Madison, the father of the Constitution, Chief Justice John Marshall, its greatest interpreter, and several Presidents of the United States. The funds were to be raised by voluntary contributions and, as it was expected that citizens would compete for the honor and privilege of subscribing for the undertaking; donations were at the beginning limited to the sum of one dollar. The great undertaking, however,* struggled through a precarious existence of fifteen years before it made sufficient progress to warrant a belief in its ultimate success. Indeed, the project of a national monument at the capital came to be regarded as a joke on account of its slow progress; for a time even funds ceased entirely to come in. However, a compounding of interest swelled the funds and the work of building was begun in 1848. On the Fourth of July of that year the cornerstone was laid amid great ceremony in the presence of a notable gathering.

This event which called the attention of the nation to the enterprise was the beginning of a period that gave its promoters great encouragement. Numerous contributions began to come in from all parts of the country. The society announced that it would be pleased to receive a block of marble, granite, or other suitable stone from every state in the Union to be placed in the interior of the monument on the landings. Political events at this time were of a sort to stimulate a hearty response to this call.

A crisis was occurring in the history of the republic; secession and civil war were threatening to involve the nation in the bloody struggle that was only delayed for another decade. The South, dissatisfied with the treatment of her rights and institutions in the Union, was thinking of severing the bonds that held her to it. An overwhelming majority of the citizens of South Carolina were in favor of the dissolution of the Union, believing that the South would be benefited both pecuniarily, politically, and morally. One of her most prominent leaders, and a later United States Senator, declared the Union to be "a splendid failure of the first modern attempt by people of different institutions, to live under the same government." Such sentiment was not confined to South Carolina alone, but was expressed all over the lower South. These states, through their legislatures, through state constituent conventions, and even acting in a convention of the slaveholding states, seriously considered the expediency of secession and withdrawal from the compact of the federal Constitution. Even when the compromise acts of 1850 were adopted as measures of pacification to check the tide of agitation, it was found that they only incited the secession element in the South to a greater determination to safeguard the interests of that section and to a greater readiness to resort to disunion. The Union men labored hard to check this sentiment but for a time the odds were against them. The executives of South Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi, themselves of the opinion that now was the time to act, advised preparations for armed re-

*In seeming fulfillment of Dickens' slur at "A monument to Washington"

sistance when the issue should be made. Book-dealers in Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, noted an unprecedented sale of works on military tactics to southern buyers. The militia of South Carolina was carefully equipped and drilled under the Palmetto flag. The Mississippi legislature even refused to allow the Stars and Stripes to be unfurled over the state capitol where it was deliberating.

The call upon the various states for blocks of stone to the memory of Washington came inevitably, though unintentionally as an appeal for the preservation of the Union. It recalled to loyal citizens the counsel of his farewell address to frown at the first dawns of any movement to alienate one portion of the country from another, with "Union" as the first, the last, the constant strain of his immortal words. They saw the full-orbed comet of disunion shooting athwart the political firmament, disturbing the harmony of our sys-



WASHINGTON MONUMENT TO-DAY.

tem, and threatening to throw it into chaos. At no previous period had the nation been more imperiously called on to rally around the principles of Washington and to refresh their recollections with his parting words of counsel and advice. Indeed several prominent and patriotic citizens proposed to make Washington's farewell address a text-book of sound political truth for all time, to be turned to when any new course of action is proposed and doubts entertained of its propriety, and of its safety to the honor and prosperity of the republic. The Union element of the Mississippi legislature answered the printing of a large number of copies of Governor Quitman's disunion message by forcing through a resolution ordering the printing of fifteen thousand copies

of the farewell address. At no previous period had Washington's precepts and the great lesson of his life been more generally appealed to than in the two years of 1850 and 1851, when the danger of disunion was doubtless greater than at any other time in the early history of the Republic. Pilgrimages were made to his grave at Mount Vernon, his name was toasted as the watchword against disunion, his memory was the pillar of fire that guided the nation through that crisis. "It is hardly extravagant to say," declared one of the leading newspapers of the day on the anniversary of his birth, "that, had it not been for the commanding authority of that honored name, and its historical associations, in favor of national and conservative principles, this Confederacy the fruit of the counsels of WASHINGTON, and in part the work of his hands, might before this time have been broken up in the violence of the conflict, which has been raging between men of obstinate prejudices and extreme opinion, upon questions of purely internal administration. . . . If that danger is now happily passing away, we are in a great degree indebted for our escape from it to the moral as well as the political influence of the memory of WASHINGTON."

As is to be expected, the national monument project became a popular one amid these conditions. Generous contributions came in from all sides,—from citizens in their private capacity, from the Masonic and Odd Fellow orders, from temperance societies, from schools and colleges, from Indian tribes, and from every possible source. Assemblies were held at the base of the monument on each succeeding Fourth of July to listen to the speeches of distinguished visitors. It was while at such a gathering in 1850, the monument then being fifty feet high, that President Taylor contracted his sudden and fatal illness from exposure to the midday heat while listening to a powerful appeal for the Union, by Senator Foote, of Mississippi. A craze for monument building developed in these years. Virginia began her famous one to Washington at Richmond, the project for a monumental column at Yorktown was taken up with enthusiasm, and Congress at length made an appropriation of fifty thousand dollars to carry into execution the resolution of 1783 for the erection of a bronze equestrian statue of Washington. It was even proposed to erect one to commemorate his achievements at Fort Mifflin. Meantime, the work on the obelisk overlooking the Potomac went on apace. Within a few years it grew to the height of one hundred and fifty feet.

The states had made a prompt response to the appeal to their affection for the Father of his Country. From them came the massive blocks—more significant by far than the stones from Switzerland, Rome,* Turkey, Greece, or even far China and Japan—inscribed with words of affectionate devotion to the Union as the best mode of expressing the reverence with which they cherished his memory, that we now see on the landings of the staircase within the monument. Michigan sent a block of native copper as "AN EMBLEM OF HER TRUST IN THE UNION"; Ohio inscribed upon a marble stone the legend, "THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON AND THE UNION OF THE STATES, SUNTO PERPETUO." "INDIANA—KNOWS NO NORTH, NO SOUTH, NOTHING BUT THE UNION." This sentiment was answered by Massachusetts,—“OUR COUNTRY IS SAFE WHILE THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON IS REVERED.” Maryland sent a marble block, "THE MEMORIAL OF HER REGARD FOR THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY, AND OF HER CORDIAL, HABITUAL, AND IMMOVABLE ATTACHMENT TO THE AMERICAN

*The pope sent two stones from the ruins of the imperial city. One of these was stolen by the Know Nothings, a secret anti-foreigner and anti-Catholic political organization which protested against the acceptance of the stones.

UNION," a sentiment similar to that of Kentucky,—**"UNDER THE AUSPICES OF HEAVEN AND THE PRECEPTS OF WASHINGTON, KENTUCKY WILL BE THE LAST TO LEAVE THE UNION."** Louisiana patriotically inscribed the words,—**"THE STATE OF LOUISIANA, EVER FAITHFUL TO THE CONSTITUTION."** The other southern states were more equivocal in their expressions. Alabama praised **"A UNION OF EQUALITY AS ADJUSTED BY THE CONSTITUTION"**; Mississippi sent a stone with the simple inscription, **"TO THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY."** Proud South Carolina and several others inscribed merely their coat of arms. The bitterness of feeling against the Palmetto state was evidenced when the figures on her coat of arms were mutilated after the block reached Washington—the work of some mad fanatic. On the fifty foot landing one finds the Georgia stone bearing the legend: **"THE CONSTITUTION AS IT IS, THE UNION AS IT WAS,"** an enigma to the tourist who does not understand the history of this period. This was inscribed under the



WASHINGTON MONUMENT IN 1876.

influence of Governor Towns, who in calculating the value of the Union had come to believe that it had become disadvantageous and perhaps undesirable to the South. The Georgia constituent convention of December, 1850, however, dominated by Union men, counteracted the importance of his action by sending in a block devoid of a hostile sentiment, and a later legislature ordered the original stone replaced by one bearing the arms of the state. This, however, appears never to have been done.

In 1852, it was noticed that the collection of contributions had begun to decline. In March of that year, when the monument was one hundred and five feet high, the society appealed to the American people stating that unless contributions became larger and more numerous than they had been in the last six months, it would be impossible to continue the work further. By that time the crisis had passed and the danger of disunion was temporarily removed. The Society now began to resort to new expedients to raise funds. Collection boxes were placed at the polls on election days labelled **"A DIME TO THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON,"** to encourage subscriptions on the democratic basis that had thus far been the feature of the movement. Now, however, new by-laws were adopted making the contributor of twenty-five dollars a member and of one hundred dollars eligible to the office of vice-president of the society. A special role of honor was provided for donors of from one hundred to one thousand dollars, whose names were to be inscribed in panels within the monument indicating the size of their gift. The Sons of Temperance of the United States are said to have made a proposition to complete the monument, it being supposed that the work could be accomplished in five years by each member of the order paying five cents a week. If this rumor was based on fact, nothing came of the suggestion. The Board of Managers next appealed to the clergymen to stir up the people on the Fourth of July, which happened to fall on Sunday, and suggested special collections in the churches for this great and patriotic object. The funds raised by these efforts made it possible for the work on the monument to continue until it rose to a height of one hundred and fifty feet.

In June of 1854, the officers of the monument society announced to Congress the end of their resources and their inability to raise money. The House of Representatives immediately appointed a select committee of thirteen to investigate the memorial of the association. On the following anniversary of Washington's birthday, the committee reported and recommended an appropriation of two hundred thousand dollars, the sum ordered to be devoted to the erection of a monument by the resolutions of 1799. Congress, however, failed to act. The society found it impossible to secure funds even though some of the promoters of the project made frantic efforts to stimulate contributions. The Mayor of New Orleans in 1855, issued a proclamation requesting the proprietors of coffee-houses and bar-rooms to close their establishments on election day and recommending that the sums that would otherwise be spent in drinks should be appropriated to the Washington monument fund. No response, however, was made to such appeals and the work on the monument came to a halt.

For a period of nearly a quarter of a century, the truncated obelisk stood upon the banks of the Potomac. Surmounted by its dismal derrick, it presented a sorry spectacle and seemed a gloomy foreboding in the years when civil war raged in the land and the enemies of the federal Union could almost have been seen from the top of the scaffolding. The Union was again in danger, but this time there was actual rebellion to be faced and all available funds were needed to put down the attempt to dissolve the confederacy. The republic survived this second and greater crisis and when the waves of war subsided, proceeded to reconstruct its disordered affairs, to substitute order for chaos. This done, the minds of the people, seeing the Union again safe and secure, turned to the memory of Washington and to the unfinished monument at the capital. In August of 1876, after the nation had enthusiastically celebrated the centennial of American Independence, Congress, inspired to decisive and emphatic action, adopted a resolution providing for the completion of the national monument. This was passed, as it auspiciously happened, on the one hundredth anniversary of

the formal signing of the great Declaration. Nine years later, on February 21, 1885, the completed obelisk, towering into the skies for five hundred and fifty feet, was dedicated with proper ceremony. The oration of the day was written by Robert Winthrop, of Massachusetts, who had made the corner-stone address thirty-seven years before. Unfortunately, however, illness prevented him from delivering it in person and it was read for him by ex-Governor Long, of the same state. We can only regret that a Daniel Webster did not live to immortalize the occasion by words as famous as those of the Bunker Hill oration.

The line of division between the upper and the lower sections of the white marble shaft is clearly marked by a difference in coloring. The lower one hundred and fifty feet has been seasoned by the smoke of civil war and darkened by age and experience.

During the long years from 1854 to 1876 those stones which had not yet been placed in the walls of the monument were deposited in a low, wooden building nearby, known as the Lapidarium. There the stones sent by the states were arranged for display together with those that had been presented by nations across the seas, awaiting the distant day when work on the unfinished shaft should be resumed. Tourists who beheld the blocks from Mt. Vesuvius, from the Alpine peaks, from the ruins of the ancient Carthage, from the Temple of Esculapius on the Island of Paros, and from other equally interesting sources quickly passed over the state stones, except the massive copper block from Michigan, weighing nearly a ton. The inscribed sentiments of devotion to the Union attracted but little attention. When, at length, active work hurried the structure toward completion, the stones were inserted in the walls without any regard to

the order of their reception or to the appropriateness of their surroundings. West Virginia, a state made possible only by the attempts of Washington's own state at withdrawal from the Union, was given precedence over Michigan, whose block was placed beside that of Kansas with the stones recently received from other younger states on the next level. The last state block to be cemented into the wall was probably that of Kentucky on the two hundred and thirty foot landing. That the state of Clay, the great Compromiser, had proved loyal to the sentiments it had inscribed thirty years before they were given a place in the monument is evident to those who recall how in 1861 it struggled with itself to maintain its place in the Union and won, "under the auspices of Heaven and the precepts of Washington."

The monument, as originally designed by Robert Mills, consisted of a circular colonnade 250 feet in diameter and 100 feet high, over which the obelisk was to rise for 500 feet more. The colonnade was to consist of 30 columns, one for each state, with the coat-of-arms of the several states placed over the columns in the frieze. The entrance was to be through a portico of three rows of four columns each, which was to be surmounted by a statue of Washington riding in a triumphal car. The interior (which was to carry out the general scheme) was to be arranged to contain the tomb of Washington and the statues of the nation's greatest statesmen and to serve as a sort of national Pantheon. On each face of the shaft above the colonnade was to be sculptured the four leading events of Washington's career in bas relief and fifty feet from the summit a single star was to be represented.

The Doctrine of Interest

As Related to Instruction in the Social Sciences in the High School.*

BY HENRY R. TUCKER, WILLIAM MCKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

May we direct our attention to a fundamental educational doctrine, and to its bearing upon the instruction in the high school, of the social sciences, viz., history, civics, and economics. It is the intention of the writer to consider rather the application of the theory than the psychology of the doctrine. If, perchance, we should postulate wrongly from a psychological viewpoint, we shall, at least, have increased our own interest in an important principle of historical instruction.

The educational activity, of late, has been very busy in the emphasis laid upon the instruction in the manual arts and agriculture. This is as it should be. Any educational system which does not touch the whole child and all the children has very little reason for existence. But the question arises, have not the so-called academic subjects been neglected in the educational upheaval? Have the interests of the pupils in these subjects been satisfied? Do the social sciences as taught to-day conform to the pupil's environment? Professor O'Shea ("Education as Adjustment," p. 148) quotes a poem which represents quite truthfully the discontent of the modern school-child, due to the lack of adaptation of the instruction to the child's needs:—

That two times two were hop-scotch,
And two into eight went fishing,
Or d-o-g spelled "I spy,"
Or geography were a description
Of the earth's swimming holes,

Or Grammar were the study of the parts
Of a boat,
How much more gladly would you seek
True wisdom
In the school-house walls.

In other words, the child says, "What's the use?" We cannot always answer that question to his satisfaction; we should, however, more and more create such a condition that he will not want to ask it. Can we create such a condition by a greater attention to the doctrine of interest?

President Schurman calls interest "the greatest word in education." Certainly we must agree with Shakespeare that "no profit grows where is no pleasure ta'en." May Professor O'Shea be quoted as to just what is to be understood by the doctrine of interest: "Interest will not be confounded, of course, with whim or caprice or humor or freak; it is not temporary or fanciful. Interest expresses the attitude of the organism toward the environing world which is believed to offer possibilities of pleasure and pain, and acquaintance with it is deemed to be highly desirable." ("Education as Adjustment," p. 151.) It is "not a mere tickling of the mind for transient ends" (DeGarmo). It is that condition of the mind whereby the attention of the pupil is attracted for some length of time towards a certain end, or towards a certain means of attaining that end. It is a large part of that mental attitude of the pupil's mind, whereby we determine when various subjects shall be taught. A correct understanding of the interests of the pupil, along with consideration of one or two other educational principles, tells

* Address before the Missouri Society of Teachers of History and Government, Kirksville, Mo., May 14, 1910.

us when fairy stories should be taught, when history instruction should be based largely upon biographical study, when the causal relation of historical events should be studied. The activities of the pupil, then, are ordered more in accordance with his abilities and his environment, the essential conditions of all educational instruction to-day.

It is clear, therefore, that the interest of the child is one of the important conditions for the successful teacher to develop. Without this the mind of the pupil will not be directed to the best advantage towards the subject or towards the phase of the subject in hand. "Whatever does not interest the mind, that the mind is indifferent to; and whatever is indifferent is for that mind as if it had no existence" (McLellan, "Applied Psychology," p. 18). The instruction of the teacher in the constitutional development of England's institutions will not secure the entire interest of the pupil, until it is made clear to him that our institutions are to-day largely from the English ones. Then the pupil's interest is aroused in that an appeal is made to his environmental experience. "Nature has implanted in every person a profound desire to learn about the things with which he has relationships, and the outward manifestation of this is called interest" (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 150).

The development of the faculty of effort, viz., the ability to apply one's self to the work in hand, should be the constant purpose of the teacher of any subject. If the history course has not increased the power of the pupil to express his thoughts in written or spoken form, then the teacher has missed one of the great fruits of his energy. The greater the interest of the pupil in the particular phase of history studied, the greater the self-expression by the pupil. It is what DeGarmo calls the "volitional activity" of the pupil, and what another writer mentions as the tonic thrill of "a healthful mental life." If the pupil's history and civics instruction has been a meaningless, "phonographic" recital of facts, then, in after life, certainly bad city government or English budget questions will have no place in his thoughts. But if the interest of the pupil has been secured in such a way that he enjoys the discussion of the 1832 Reform Bill or the causes of economic crises, he will then enthuse in the description of the budget legislation or in the discussion of high prices,—even though such discussion may seem meagre to the mature mind.

As history teachers, we need to arouse the interest of the pupil in order to get the fullest expression of his mind. To put it plainly, he will not do things with the highest motive, unless he is interested. He may get his lesson because there is assigned "pages 25 to 32," but woe unto the teacher whose work has deteriorated to such a level. In fact, interest increases self-activity, and self-activity begets interest. They are natural concomitants of each other. "This principle (interest) transcends almost all others in educational importance. The pupil's mind must be aroused from within and his own activity called upon, if he is to be interested in any subject." Who of us does not remember that knotty problem in arithmetic or algebra, over which we worked till the "wee small hours of the morning" and the thrill that came over us when we had solved it? Who of us, as teachers, cannot testify to increased interest by our classes as a result of the completion of a definitely assigned task? Why this inevitable result, accompanied by the thrill of conscious power? Because it is "the internal realization of outgoing energy." As DeGarmo puts it ("Herbert and the Herbertians," page 18), "Interest has its origin in the exhilaration, the sense of power of mastery, that goes with every internally impelled effort to realize a condition for the survival of the self, whether such survival touch one aspect of the man or another. Interest is therefore dynamic in character." If the history instruction deals with historical trivialities, and lessons are assigned with no discrimination, for fear that something will be left out; if the civics lesson is not enlivened through-

out by reference to the operation of institutions in our midst; if the economics, as taught in the high school, is weighted with abstruse theories, and there is no application of simply-worded theories to existing industrial conditions,—if the social sciences are to be of this content, even the child's utmost self-activity will not create interest. But with the subjects given the right content, the pupil's self-activity will arouse interest, and the increased interest will incite further self-expression. When any subject fails to develop this ability of the pupil, viz., the faculty of effort, one of the chief purposes of education is neglected, for the acquisition of the content of the subject, however important, is secondary.

What part in our method shall this development of the pupil's power of expression have? Shall he feel no burden, no mental pain? "The theory of interest does not propose to banish drudgery, but only to make drudgery tolerable by giving it a meaning." (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 151.) It is not the province of this paper to discuss the difference between the Hegelian theory of interest, with its emphasis upon effort, and the Herbartian theory, with its emphasis upon pleasurable reaction. Dr. Dewey has ably worked out a middle ground, incorporating in correct proportion the good elements of the two interpretations. We are neither to drive, to compel, nor to allure, to coax. We must pursue a middle course.

There is a distinct connection between effort and interest. Our interests may be directed toward the attainment of some idea or the realization of some end, and through effort the end is reached. Thus the interest in a certain end is realized through the exercise of effort, and complete expression is brought about. The outlining of the proceedings of the constitutional convention of 1787 may not be easy, nor even excite pleasure, at first; but as the pupil gets into the "thick" of the problem, his interest is aroused on account of self-exertion. When the effort becomes drudgery, then it is time for the teacher to find some new way of arousing the interest of the class; for the tasks which interest do not fatigue one as readily as those which one "hates." "The stimulus which calls forth as much of the mind's activity as is possible without straining it, is of proper strength and awakens the most interest." (McLellan, "Applied Psychology," p. 111.) Never, never, as a general policy should the teacher outwardly compel pupils to direct their interest toward certain things. Each day's lesson should be presented in such a way, that it naturally grows out of the previous day's work.

A history class which works through library references and reports, rightly assigned to supplement the text, will have more interest in the work than one which uses only the textbook. There will arise pleasure, in studying more about a great character in history or in reading in connection with the study of economics what a union man has to say about unions. The writer has seen a civics class become very interested, because it was called upon constantly to apply the content of the text to the institutions about it. The note-book work was made a means, not an end. This, at first repulsive, was soon considered the most pleasurable part of the work. The teacher might just as well give the information to the class, so far as the storing of facts is concerned; in form, it would be even more effective. But how much better it is, that the class should work out the material by its own efforts? The writer has very little faith in the instructive power of anything told by the teacher, or by one pupil in a class report. It is like water off a duck's back; the ideas do not "stick." Continual expository teaching is ineffective. It takes more effort on the part of the teacher to arrange the work so that the pupil finds out things for himself; but there is certainly more training in it for the pupil. The real teacher will consider the development of the pupil above his own pleasures. Effort must be exercised and interest must be maintained in reasonable proportion; the relative ratio of the two

will depend upon the subject, the topic, and the ability of the teacher.

The faculty of self-expression should certainly develop the power to think, what some call the apperceptive power. The power to think, to co-ordinate the mental processes, is one of the chief powers for the pupil to develop. If he has not in four years' time learned how to use his mental powers better, then his training has been deficient just that much. Of all the subjects taught in the high school, history instruction is most likely to lack this element, the training in power to think. Much of the history instruction is still permeated with a recital of unimportant minutiae and meaningless details; it has degenerated into a mere memory exercise. The pupils are entirely at sea when questions are asked involving comparisons of facts, causes of events, characterizations of historical personages, etc. Too often it is necessary to phrase questions in the words of the book and in the order of presentation of subject-matter. No wonder that the work becomes lifeless and the pupils in large part come to look upon the history recitation with aversion. This results in a phase of arrested development, for "the effort involved in always doing what one hates results in arrest of cerebral development, if in nothing worse. (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 152.) The pupils are not to be blamed for a hostile attitude towards the subject under such conditions. Their young, active minds yearn for something upon which they can sharpen their intellects. They long for an exercise which shall bring results and the completion of which shall fill them with mental intoxication. They will then be interested.

It is far better that a profitable study be made of two of the crucial movements leading up to the Civil War than that the pupil's time should be occupied with the drudgery of a recital of events, in which sight of the pivotal movements is lost. It is just as well that the pupil not be able to recite in chronological order the course of events of the French Revolution, if he knows the causes of that great event, the chief actors, and understands the transition to the Napoleonic régime. It is along this line that a moderate use of the sources can be made. The class can be called upon occasionally to answer questions in interpreting the words of some statesman, rather than reading about that statesman. Some teachers cannot get away from the connected account. They are lost if one detail in the order of development is left out. They prefer to sacrifice the pupil's power to the pupil's store of knowledge. Which will the pupil use most in after life? Let both be attended to, but not one slighted at the expense of the other. The text-books do not need to be rewritten; it is the teaching that must radically change in that the text-book is to be more and more a guide only, a skeleton. It will take a talented, discriminating, well-balanced teacher to teach according to this standard. But why not? It takes as much intelligence and pedagogical training to teach history as any other subject in the high school curriculum. No longer is the history class to be handed over to the teacher whose time is not filled, on the supposition that "anyone can teach history" who can read English.

The nature of the other two social sciences—civics and economics—taught in the high school does not admit of quite so much neglect in developing the thinking power; yet there is room for improvement. Compare the interest of the pupil in civics when it is a study in the interpretation of the dry bones of constitutional forms with the study of the workings of governmental departments, there being little mention of constitutional forms. The interest of the pupil in the latter case will be far above that in the former. The more the pupil is called upon in civics to think as well as to remember, the more interested he becomes. A study of the main points of the argument in the Insular Cases, even though hard, will, when completed, reap a more intelligent understanding

of the relation of the various territories to the United States, than an abstract statement of the relation ever would do. The economics class becomes enthused over a term paper, whose preparation is reported on at various times during the term. Why? Because it is restricted in choosing subjects to those industries in its midst or to vital industrial questions of the day,—a wholesale dry goods company, the telephone exchange, high prices, pure food law, etc. But the interest aroused is not due entirely to the selection of topics within the environment of the pupils. More, they are called upon to gather their material first-hand, to organize it under the direction of the teacher, to do their own thinking. Our instruction in the social sciences has been weighted with a "lot of stuff" which should be relegated to the ash-heap. More emphasis needs to be placed upon the thorough understanding by the pupil of the pivotal movements in history, of the civic and industrial society about him. Not "how much" but "how well" should be the aim of the teacher of the social sciences. Let us note Professor DeGarmo's consideration of the relation of thinking and interest: "Interest, voluntary attention, and thinking are synonymous terms, to the extent that they belong together, presupposing and supplementing one another in the solution of concrete thought problems. It is only the pressure of mass instruction that has concealed from us this intimate and important identity between interest and voluntarily directed attention to the solution of self-directed, or at all events, self-welcomed problems. It is the memorizing of ready-made answers, required or anticipated, that dulls the thought powers of the child."

There are certain conditions that will promote the development of the pupil's interest. It is only possible to discuss them briefly here. Interest begets interest, and so a teacher who is not enthused in her subject cannot arouse any high degree of enthusiasm for it, on the part of the pupils. It is not desired that an unbridled enthusiasm be inspired which prompts a greater amount of time upon the history work than upon the other subjects of the course. But if the teacher is full of her subject and knows how to present it in an attractive way,—has *obiter dicta* of illustrations at her tongue's end, as it were—a large part of arousing the interest of the pupil will be attained. No doubt, this is where that mysterious, unknown factor—the personality of the teacher—has such an influence.

The pupil is always raising the question, "Well, what's the value of studying this?" The question may arise in the study of Greek confederations, or in a study of the Fall of the Roman Empire. It is the teacher's work to show the significance of apparently unrelated facts and connect them with the present. "Why a study of the Reform Bill of 1832?" The reply will be, that then we will better understand the present budget crisis in England. "Why a study of the constitutional convention of 1787?" And the answer will be, that we may better determine the functions of different parts of the government to-day through a study of the intentions of the framers of the constitution. "Why a study of the benefits and defects of labor unions?" That we may take an intelligent, rational position in a great industrial question to-day. "Why a study of the intricacies of English constitutional development of the Middle Ages?" In order that the citizen of to-morrow may realize that his political welfare and freedom depend upon the maintenance of the historical principles of freedom. "Why a study of the city government of St. Louis?" That one may become a better citizen, for right knowledge generally begets right action. An investigation of the taking of the census is an excellent example of first-hand study. The interest in the pupil's part in that census will be projected into the study of the otherwise more or less lifeless text,—lifeless, in that it often seems so to the pupil. The writer believes in a con-

stant reference to problems and conditions of the day, no matter what period of history or what other social science is being studied, so long as such consideration serves only as a sidelight and does not overshadow the lesson in hand. It is in connection with this that clippings from newspapers and periodicals can be used to such advantage. Pupils, though, have to be directed considerably in their use. The pupil may not have been interested in events far removed from his time. But by an inductive process, this has been secured not alone through skill of presentation, but also by appealing to that in which he is interested, viz., the "day's news," since it is a part of his environment. The press dispatch on the assassination of the King of Portugal will call up the industrial and political chaos typical of that little country. The accounts, serious and humorous, of the taking of the census will give food for an interesting recitation. The illness of Francis Joseph will suggest a consideration of the internal and external forces affecting the permanency of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The civics class will be instructed to cut out of the daily paper the account of the proceedings in Congress, affecting the change in the Committee on Rules. This appeal to the present cannot be made so much in some courses as in others, yet in all of them we need to enliven our work in this way. Thus we may do our part, even though it may be little, to direct the pupil's attention to the best of the storehouse of public events and public opinion. He will read enough of the trash of the daily press, and it is within our power to reduce this tendency.

The teacher, whatever his charm of manner and skill of presentation, cannot secure the best of results without proper equipment. The history teacher should not and does not ask for such expensive equipment as the teacher of physical sciences or the manual branches. But he must be provided with some equipment, more than a text-book and bare walls, whereby to fulfill the proper conditions for arousing and maintaining the interest of his class. A few months ago an item was printed in an educational paper, relating that the school board in a large western town had included in the cost of a new building the expense necessary to purchase maps, stereopticon, slides, etc. Why not? Are these not as necessary as test-tubes, Atwood's machine, induction coils, microscopes, lathes, etc.? When school boards throughout this country learn to allot the equipment to the various subjects proportionate to the respective needs, they will materially aid the history teacher in maintaining the interest of the pupils. Then there will be the necessary equipment, viz., library books (duplicate copies of a few well-adapted books for class use, rather than many single copies), wall maps, stereopticons and slides, outline maps, etc.

To maintain the interest of the class, monotony of presentation must be avoided. At one time, it is a memory lesson largely; at another time the imagination is appealed to; then comparison of governments is made. Constant activity of the mind in one direction produces mental fatigue. Thus the energy is lowered, and therefore the interest is lessened. Reviews must not consist of going over the subject matter in the same order, with larger assignment; they should be carried out with reference to the whole, and in such a way as largely to present the appearance of new material. The very nature of the content of the social sciences is conducive to variety of topic matter. Some pupils are attracted to social development, others to constitutional development, others to a study of campaigns, and still others to biographical study. Let the pupil express his efficiency in a study of the particular phase in which he is interested. The attention of the class should not be held on one topic too long. When the teacher notices that the minds of the pupils

are becoming fagged and the class becomes listless, it is time to use some device that will hold the interest, or pass to an entirely new phase of development. Social sciences are subjects in which the conditions for variety of content and method of presentation are ideal.

The interests and mental ability of pupils vary. History taught in the first year of the high school considers a different psychological basis from that taught in the fourth year. What are proper conditions for arousing the interest of the pupil in one section of the country would fail in another. Civics for a large city would vary considerably from that taught in an agricultural high school, or to foreigners learning English. The teacher is to realize the limitations of the pupils; yet this does not mean that he is to leave nothing for them to do. It is very seldom that an outline or a tabulation or a map should be perfected by the teacher for class use, until the class has first tried the exercise. The teacher is to suit his knowledge and methods to the varying temperaments and abilities of his pupils. "It is far easier to treat the entire class alike and to drive them over the hurdles set by a single required course of study, in the vain hope that the weak and timid will not be injured as much as the strong and the confident will be benefited and that somehow or other the algebraic sum of the results of the process will bear a positive sign." (Butler, "The Meaning of Education and Other Essays," p. 85.) The teacher is to be a scholar always, but he is not to remain on a scholarly pedestal, aloof from those whom he instructs. He will then adapt himself to the abilities, needs, interests of his pupils, for the child is more important than the subject-matter. Our chief mission is not to cram facts—however useful they are, in due proportion—but to develop in the pupils power to do, through the agency of the acquisition of facts.

The writer disclaims any distinct contribution to the instruction of the social sciences in the high school. This humble effort has at least set himself to thinking. Interest is not by any means the chief educational principle, for there are others just as important,—attention, correlation, apperception, disciplinary value of studies, etc. After all has been said, though, does Staude (quoted in DeGarmo's "Herbart and the Herbartians," p. 65) put it too strongly when he says: "Interest is the charmed word which alone gives power to instruction to call the spirit of youth and to make it serve the aim of the master. It is the lever of education, which, lightly and joyfully moved by the teacher, can alone bring the youthful will into desired activity and direction." The less the teacher has to compel study and the more he gets it through voluntarily aroused interest, the greater the results of the teacher's energy. As a profession we must put before us the motto, "Keep growing," and "interest is the signboard pointing the direction in which education must proceed" (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 151), and we must grow. We must get out of the beaten path; do better to-morrow than to-day. We must vitalize our instruction. We need to stop and inquire when pupils dislike a subject; why does it not appeal to their interests? Their attitude should be a powerful check on our indifference, our slovenliness. Is the difficulty of our instruction inherent in the subject, the pupil, or in the teacher? Let us not put it in one place, only.

We are at least justified in our study of this educational principle by such an eminent authority as President Butler, who writes: "I earnestly commend to every teacher the study of these two principles, apperception and interest. I do so in the firm belief that the practical result of that study would be an immense uplifting of the teaching efficiency of every educational institution in the United States." (Butler, "The Meaning of Education and Other Essays," p. 86.)

History in the Normal Schools

How Shall the Professional Schools Prepare Their Pupils to Teach in Accordance with the Report of the Committee of Eight?*

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I do not understand that in this article I am to enter into particular methods of training teachers for work in teaching history, but rather to indicate some of the more general lines of preparation that may be desirable as a foundation for handling grade work in history. The outline of the Committee of Eight is very clear cut and definite and to that extent requires no more preparation than any other good outline of history work for the grades; on the other hand it represents a much broader range of ideas, historically, than most outlines and presumes a preparation and point of view far more comprehensive than are ordinarily found in the grade teacher, whether normal school graduate or not. If the immediate future is to find history work in the grades in any degree as efficient as contemplated in the Committee of Eight's outline, then it is indeed time for the normal schools and all other schools preparing teachers of history to give far more extensive work in history than most of them now do. Just how this is to be done in a two years' course already crowded and jealously watched by the teachers of every department, is the problem in hand.

It would seem to me that a clear conception of exactly what we are aiming at in our history work will be helpful at this point, before taking up the particular courses desirable for the necessary preparation. Are we training for the benefit of the pupils under us or for the children they are to teach? Since we are discussing work in professional schools it might seem as though this were a needless question; our normal schools have been organized for the express purpose of training teachers to teach children, and to some it would seem as though all thought and energy should be devoted to showing students how to teach. When we consider, however, that our students average only from three to five years in the teaching business, it makes us pause to consider if, after all, we are not training for citizenship fully as much as for the profession of teaching; and again, we must not lose sight of the fact that it is as essential that a teacher have something to teach as that he should know how to teach it. A due consideration of these points will help in the discussion as to whether our courses in the normal school shall be primarily courses in methods or primarily courses in history.

This has been a tender point in the past and still remains so. The colleges and universities have pointed the finger of scorn at the normal schools for, as they say, sending students out with detailed instructions in the art of teaching particular studies without having in their minds anything in particular to teach. The normal schools have charged that the colleges and universities have considered that to be a successful research student would guarantee success in teaching and they have so centered their instruction to this end, that many of our high schools, officered by students trained in this way, have suffered from over-doses of the lecture method and post-graduate specialization. I think that all these charges have been in a large measure, true, but that both the normal schools and the western universities, at least, have gradually changed their point of view during the last few years, so that the normal schools are giving something besides methods and devices, and the universities are placing skill in teaching on a par with dili-

gence and constructive ability in research. I believe that the universities have room for further advancement in this direction and that the normal schools may profit by a still greater emphasis on the scholastic side.

In some quarters we are urged to teach the students exactly what they are to teach, that is, in the case of history, if the students are to teach the outline of the Committee of Eight, use that outline as a syllabus for the normal school work in history. I believe that that would be the worst possible mistake that the normal schools could make. Such a course might do for students who had already taken a college course in history and who needed to get university methods out of their systems, in order that they might get the child's limitations in mind, but to give such a course to students whose knowledge of the range of history is limited to the text-book preparation which most high schools give, would almost inevitably fix his ideas of history at the low tide-water mark of text-book preparation and juvenile understanding. The very references called for in the outline would tend to make him narrow and hidebound, for they would represent to him the maximum of general reading and scholarship in history and would tend to make him consider himself a prodigy of learning because he had read a number of chapters on isolated and often unrelated topics in large books that were not text-books. He might consider himself what one of the most prominent superintendents of schools in the United States had in mind, when, at a conference of normal school teachers and school superintendents last year, he declared, "The superintendents demand that the normal schools send them *journeymen* teachers." My profoundest conviction is that we do not expect nor want, in the limited courses we can give, to send out from the normal school anything of the kind. The journeyman is the finished product, he has all the methods at his tongue's end, he is teeming with devices to meet every exigency, he has a carefully prepared and exact outline for every study for every year from the first primary to the high school, and never fails to know exactly what to do. We could send our students out with a particular method, or rather device, for every study and an exact outline to go with it, and tell them exactly how to teach each subject,—but if we used our two short years in the normal school in that way, what a narrow, stereotyped set of people we would send out,—what a lock step system of education we would inaugurate,—what limited individual thought, and therefore what complete stagnation, educationally, would follow!

My contention then is, that if we wish to prepare teachers of history, the first essential will be to give as many and as thorough courses in history as can possibly be given in the limited time at our disposal, with a fair allotment of time to the study of primary history and methods.

In the first place, higher requirements for admission to normal schools should be made. For years the universities have inspected high schools and fixed requirements by dictating courses and equipment or by standardizing the scope of entrance examination requirements. The normal schools have to a very large degree neglected this field. The Regents of the Wisconsin Normal School System adopted last June a rule that students who have not taken in an accredited four year high school, twelve weeks each of arithmetic, grammar, and geography, one half year each of biology, physics, and civics, and one year each of European

* Read before the History Teachers' Section of the American Historical Association at Buffalo, 1911.

and American history, shall be required to take such subjects in the normal school as additional work, lengthening their courses to the extent necessary to cover all such work. The new stipulations in regard to American history and civics, go into effect next September, a part of the rest the next year, and the remainder the following year. In the past we have been continually receiving pupils very inadequately prepared in history as well as in some other branches, and occasionally, a student who has graduated from a high school without having taken any history whatever. As our new rule comes into operation, it will certainly make a great difference in the work of the Wisconsin normal schools. Rules of this character are in force in some of the states, and should be in force in all. What a monstrous thing for a normal school to be obliged to receive students unprepared, or nearly so, in such an essential branch as history, and after a brief two years' work, in which the student's time and attention are shared by all the courses in the curriculum, turn him out with a diploma qualifying him to teach any subject in any grade, from the first primary through the high school.

If legal restrictions can be made at the beginning of the course, so ought they to be made at the end of a course. There should be a law requiring four years' work beyond the high school before any student is allowed to teach in a high school. The universities and colleges and normal colleges would certainly be in favor of such a law and if the normal schools joined forces with them there would be little question of the success of the proposition. The normal schools can never expect to get credit for scholarly standards as long as they look complacently on, while students leave their two year courses to teach in the high schools.

So far in our normal schools very little serious attempt has been made to fit our normal school courses to exactly the sort of work that a student expects to do. Some differentiation has been made, but not nearly enough. If students enroll according to their preferences in teaching into high school, grammar, intermediate and primary groups, much real differentiation can be made in the courses offered. A course for primary teachers need not have as much history, geography, chemistry, mathematics, etc., as one designed for high school or grammar grade teachers.

A fair requirement in history for a primary course, for a student who has had good history courses in the high school with a year of American history in the last year of his course, which has come to be the standard in Wisconsin, would be a half year's work in American history in a class meeting five times a week. Such a course should be largely social and industrial, not by any means highly technical, and on the social side should be largely biographical. The work should be based on a carefully prepared syllabus and be mainly reference work and class discussion. No text-book can give the stories and social conditions necessary for primary work in history. In order that the student may be able to handle the necessary reference work in the Committee of Eight outline, he must have thorough training in gaining this material from a large reference work and in making it over so that it may be presented to children. Topical recitations are essential to train the student in freedom in expressing himself; and emphasis should be placed on story-telling.

Somewhere in the normal school course training in story telling should be carried on systematically and if no one else does it then the history teacher must, for all primary history courses must consist largely of story telling and the dramatization of the stories. For years I have made the main professional work for primary teachers of history consist of observation lessons in which I tell stories to the children and lead them to dramatize the stories while the training class looks on. There never has been time enough to train the students in telling stories; but it is easy to show

them the value of it in teaching children, and when they see how easy it is and how interesting, many of them go out to try it on the children they teach. It seems to me that this is an essential part of a normal school history course for primary teachers, and if the normal school teacher of history does not feel qualified to tell stories to children he should secure help from some one who is qualified, and so bring the matter home to the students. One showing is worth a week's lecturing on the value of story telling in teaching primary history.

Normal school history teachers are inclined often to think only of the upper grades when training students, but I believe that a foundation for an interest in history may be laid in the very lowest grades, and that history stories form in many ways better educational material for little children, than much of the nature work that is given, the fairy stories, or that never-failing refuge for the inefficient teacher that used to be generalized under the head of "busy work." The primary and intermediate grades are the formative ones, and children who learn to love the history story will soon call for the history book, and if this taste is cultivated by intelligent teachers not even text-book drill at the hand of an eighth grade teacher not interested in history can destroy all their delight in the study of the doings of men.

The course for the intermediate grades need not be essentially different from the primary course. Story telling is as essential and the work, following the Committee of Eight, is still American history. For the grammar grades, however, beginning with the sixth grade, great differentiation should be made. It seems to me that the very least history requirement for a student who expects to teach in the grammar grades would be three courses, two of twenty weeks each and one of thirty weeks. With students classified into the departments in which they are expecting to teach, it seems to me that it is entirely practical to give these courses without detriment to the other work expected of the pupils. If the entrance requirements are such as have been indicated above, then a very fair amount of preparation will be assured. When the grammar grades have been departmentalized, as they should be, certainly, this specialization can be carried still farther.

I would give the two twenty weeks' courses to English and Modern European history and the thirty week's course to American history and methods. The English history should be given first as a background for American history and institutions, social, religious, and political. Not much time should be given to the period before the Conquest, and from then to the reign of Henry VII, the course should follow briefly three main lines—the church, the government, and the social-economic conditions as influenced by the characteristic forces of the Middle Ages. From Henry VII on, there should be far more intensive study of the development of institutions; Parliament, the religious struggle, intellectual and industrial development, with the struggle for the control of the government by the nation. These threads should be followed through the Revolution of 1688. Only the one main line of the development of the cabinet government and the supremacy of Parliament need be studied from 1688 to the reign of George III, where much stress must be laid on the state of Parliamentary government and lack of civil liberty, to give a proper setting for the conditions that gave rise to the American Revolution. Less time should be given to the Napoleonic period, as that can best be considered in connection with the course in Modern European history. Much attention should be paid to the great industrial changes of this period and their social effects. The reform of Parliament, the free trade movement and England's Colonial Empire should be treated as separate topics and given large consideration. The general democratic movement in England since the Reform Bill should

be treated in connection with the general democratic movement in Europe as a whole. I believe that such a course as this would give a student a fair background for handling English history in its relations to American history as given in the outline of the Committee of Eight.

The Modern European history course should begin about the time of Richelieu and should cover the ground in somewhat the same fashion as the course in English history, leaving out enough so that the essential factors should have definite and decisive treatment. I think that by far the greatest part of the course should be given to the time from the causes of the French Revolution to the present. The French Revolution should be treated so as to emphasize the causes that brought it on, and the results that were accomplished, and not for the particular events—events occurring during its continuance. I mean that there is no excuse for having our students finish their study of this period with the Reign of Terror in their minds as the most important thing about the whole movement. Napoleon's campaigns should fade away in the memory of the political and social conditions that made their success possible and should be remembered only in the far-reaching results that they brought about. The later period of European history is most interesting to us from the formation of the modern nations and from the democratic and industrial movements, which should be studied as special topics. I am not trying to name the particular events that should be, or should not be taught, but am only hinting at the *nature* of the topics that should be taken up to furnish the student with a proper background not only for teaching American history but for further study of the development of Europe as he realizes the limitations of his knowledge after he begins teaching.

The course in American history should follow three lines, political, social and economic. Political history is necessary to show the development of our institutions, to show the great part that individual influence and finesse have played on our history. It is also necessary that the constitutional history of the country may be understood. Great stress should be laid on the social and economic sides, but I have not gone over, horse and foot, to the idea that our school work in history should be mainly industrial. To students of the freshman and sophomore grade whom we are handling, the personal element appeals very strongly and the children whom they are to teach must have the personal element as a large factor in their instruction, and I believe that this may be brought out more strongly in the political and social topics than in the industrial. Biography will greatly aid in this and we are blessed now with a profusion of most excellent biographical material.

Since the main teaching the student is to do is in the field of American history, and since it is admitted that we cannot cover the whole field of American history in thirty weeks, it might seem that more time should be devoted to American history and less to European. I believe that reasons can be given for the course as recommended. In the first place, the students know much more about our history than they do of the history of Europe. They were taught American history in the grammar grades and as a rule no other history there at all. In our western high schools, at least, it is coming to be a regular thing to require the students to take in the last year of their course a year of American history, which makes a very good foundation for the normal school work. Again, our history is much less complicated and much shorter than the history of the European countries. We have in a large measure, inherited our institutions from Europe and in these latter years we are again coming into close contact with European

politics, we are vitally interested in European affairs in a way not true since the close of the War of 1812, and we cannot tell when another adjustment of European affairs may lead us into complications before unheard of. Certainly, in our cities our students need a large understanding of European civilization and government in order to teach sympathetically and understandingly the children of recent immigrants who swarm in our public schools.

We are noted for our provincialism. The average American citizen looks upon Europe as even now undergoing the throes of final dissolution, as a country where vice and ignorance and oppression and corruption are rampant, and where an effete and useless aristocracy is squeezing the life blood from the people. On the other hand, he believes that America is the one country where enlightenment rules and where there is freedom to the individual. If we are ever to have a different view and a wider vision of the world's progress the teachers must inaugurate the movement and they never can do that until they themselves have some knowledge of the truth of things.

I have said nothing in this paper in regard to the very obvious necessity of teaching geography throughout all the history courses. I say "throughout" advisedly, for I think that often the teacher gives a general survey of the geographical conditions of his problem at the beginning of the course and then scarcely ever refers to the matter again. Nearly all the high school text-books treat the geographical side in this way, which is, I believe a, great mistake.

I believe that five weeks of the course in American history may reasonably be given to methods. Methods of questioning, assignment of lessons, the various phases of the study, recitation, the relation between geography and history, black board work, the use of pictures and maps should all have been so thoroughly fixed in the student's mind by the regular class work, that there should be need for nothing more than incidental reference to these subjects during the work in methods except as the attention of the class is called to the use of these arts during the observation work.

Story telling, juvenile history books and observation work in the grades, followed by critical discussions should take up the major part of the five weeks devoted specifically to methods. The work with the children should be done by the normal school teacher of history, when he is capable of handling children, for he knows best what his theories of teaching history to children are, and, incidentally, it is the best way to find that some of his most cherished theories will not work. I think it is a serious question whether or not a teacher is qualified to tell students how to teach history to children if he cannot teach children himself. I believe that for practical purposes, observation work is worth more than all the rest of the "methods" put together.

I have wished this paper to be a protest against that tendency of the normal and other professional schools to place so great an emphasis on method that they slight the more important matter, the material that should be taught. In closing I would summarize as follows; the emphasis must be placed on history of the right sort and not on methods; that much more history must be given than in the past, and may be given by a proper differentiation in courses so that fairly adequate preparation on the scholastic side may be afforded, even in a two years' course, especially if entrance requirements are made as they should be; and that methods should form a part of every-day teaching to be supplemented at the close of the student's course with a minimum of time given to the special work before the children that could not be given in the regular class.

The Critical Attitude

HOW TO DEVELOP IT IN STUDENTS.

By Rayner W. Kelsey, Ph.D., Haverford College, Penna.

"Historical science, whatever may be said, is not a science of observation at all. . . . The document is his (the historian's) starting point, the fact is his goal. Between this starting point and this goal he has to pass through a complicated series of inferences, closely interwoven with each other, in which there are innumerable chances of error; while the least error, whether committed at the beginning, middle, or end of the work, may vitiate all his conclusions. The 'historical,' or indirect, method is thus obviously inferior to the method of direct observation; but the historians have no choice." (Langlois and Seignobos, "Introduction to the Study of History," 64-65).

In addition to the statement of the eminent French scholars, it may be said that almost the same problem confronts the high school or college student in his use of text-books and general histories. Indeed, any historian, except in his special field, must base his knowledge of history upon the findings of others. Hence the "least error" committed by others "may vitiate all his conclusions."

It is not altogether bad that it is so. Not all valuable training is in the exact and the inductive sciences. There is a real gain from the fact that far off events cannot be drawn nearer by forty inch telescopes, that minute details and intricate situations cannot be tried out with laboratory apparatus, that historical conclusions cannot be based upon axioms and postulates. The fact that many conclusions of the specialist and of the general student of history must be based upon incomplete or unsatisfactory evidence makes the training of the historian a most valuable asset in practical life. For most of the problems of every day life, the judgments of men and events and social conditions, in business or professional or social life, are not unlike the problems of the historian. The inadequate evidence at hand calls for a refined critical attitude, slowness of judgment, conservatism of conclusion.

Among high school and college students the critical attitude may be measurably developed by teaching them clearly to distinguish between scholarly and popular histories and carefully to watch in *all histories* for contradictions, loose statements, or exaggerated conclusions.

The special object of this writing is to point out some instances where standard histories and text-books disagree. The exercise for students in examining and resolving such cases is obvious.

It will be noted that not all the instances cited below represent absolute errors, and that some of the contradictions are only apparent. Yet most of them may well serve to encourage the careful examination and comparison of authorities on the part of the student.

"Richard could have felt no grief at the death of his father, and he made no show of any." "Richard . . . shed bitter tears when he heard of Henry's miserable end." (Adams "Political Hist. of Eng." 1066-1216, 359. Tout, "Advanced Hist. of Great Britain," 131).

"The queen and Earl Richard . . . gathered a Great Council (1254), to which, for the first time, representative knights, four from each shire, were summoned."—"Representatives of all the shires were joined together in a single assembly, . . . this was first done, so far as we know,

under John in 1213." "The year 1254 then is the first date at which the royal writs direct the election and attendance in parliament of two knights from each shire." Note the variety of contradictions. (Gardiner, Student's Hist. of Eng., 196. Tout, "Advanced Hist. of Great Britain," 173. Stubbs, "Constitutional Hist.," section 214. Cf. documents of 1213 and 1254 in Adams and Stephens, "Select Documents.")

"The king sent out writs to all the sheriffs, ordering them to send to St. Albans . . . the reeve and four legal men from each township of the royal domains."—"John . . . summoned four men from each county to meet at St. Albans."—"The King sent letters to all the sheriffs . . . ordering them to send four liege men from each town in their demesnes, together with the warden, to St. Albans." (Adams, "Pol. Hist. of Eng." 1066-1216, 427. Gardiner, "Student's Hist.," 180. Adams and Stephens, "Select Docs.," 26. Cf. "Amer. Hist. Rev.," 17 (1911-1912) : 12-16. "He (King Alfred) died in 899."—"He . . . died in 900 A. D."—"In 901 Aelfred died." (Text-books of Tout, Cheyney, Gardiner).

"Another treaty, negotiated 1807, was rejected by the Senate."—"Jefferson did not send the document (treaty of 1807) to the Senate for its consideration." (Coman, "Industrial History," ed. 1905, 171. Channing, "Jeffersonian System," 205).

"It was not till April 2, (1789) that the House had a quorum and began to transact business."—"Thirty made a quorum, and a quorum being present in the city, the House, on the morning of the thirtieth of March, took possession of its rooms in Federal Hall and organized." (Bassett, "Federalist System," 7-8. McMaster, "Hist. of the People of the U. S.," 1: 534).

"At last, on the fifth of January, the (Hartford) convention adjourned."—"The convention adjourned on January 15, 1815." (McMaster, "History," 4: 250. Babcock, "Rise of American Nationality," 162).

"The charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were demanded for annulment (1686). The former colony was, as usual, obedient, and yielded up her charter."—"The Rhode Islanders did not give up their charter, but otherwise they yielded to the royal wish." (Thwaites, "Colonies," 175. Channing, "United States," 2: 176).

"Much devastation was wrought and blood spilled, until in 1697 the treaty of Ryswick put an end to the trouble, and left the [Hudson's Bay] Company in undisputed possession." "Until the treaty of Utrecht (1713), nearly every season witnessed picturesque armed contests between French and English upon the dreary shores of Hudson Bay." (Thwaites, Colonies, 244. Thwaites, France in America, 47)

The writer would not give the impression by the foregoing observations that it is a good thing to have faulty texts in order to cultivate the student's critical sense. On the contrary he feels that somewhere in our historical publications there should be room for as thorough a reviewing of text-books as of monographs and larger histories. Yet at the best it takes time to clear away the errors of detail in a text.

In the meantime it is pleasing to see the avidity with which students take up the hunt for mistakes and over statements. Several of the above points were first called to the attention of the writer by students who had discovered them in their library work.

The larger number of such errors or contradictions are of minor details to be sure. Yet just in the minor details must the historian be on his guard. Just there may lurk the error that "may vitiate all his conclusions." Just in cultivating accuracy of detail may the specialist and the general student whet their critical senses to the finest edge,—an edge that will cut many a Gordian knot of practical daily problems.

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WHAT CAN BE ACCOMPLISHED?

In these days of multifarious organizations, when a man or woman of public spirit is deluged with invitations to join the membership and contribute to the funds of numerous societies, a good reason must be shown for the creation of any new form of association. We have joined societies for the promotion of agriculture, for the study of geography, and for the care of the child; we are members of social clubs, of local historical societies, of political organizations; we are busily at work in teachers' associations, in peace societies, and in various social or political reform organizations. Ought we to inflict upon the busy teacher of history any more of these duties? Is there any place in our lives for associations of history teachers? To such questions a decided yes! can be given.

The success which has attended so many of these local and national associations formed for professional and reform purposes is a conclusive argument in favor of the collaboration of history teachers for the promotion of the interests of their profession. No single movement will do more to dignify the teaching of history, or raise the standing of the teacher of history in the eyes of school books, superintendents, and the community in general, than the successful inception and management of history teachers' associations.

Abundant productive fields lie open before the history teachers' association. Not only will the personal contact increase the efficiency of the teachers, and improve their professional standing, but many forms of creative activity may be entered upon. The work in the past decade of the New England History Teachers' Association is an excellent illustration of the existence of such possibilities. In addition to the publication of its annual reports, committees of this association have issued many valuable aids to the teaching of history. They have published a syllabus for high school history courses, which has been made the basis of the work in many schools outside of New England, as well as within its limits, and notably in the state of New York. They prepared a similar syllabus for the study of civil government, and are now at work upon one for economics in the high school. A valuable pamphlet—now, unhappily, out of print—contained references to available source-material for secondary school work. Recently a committee prepared and exhibited in permanent form, a collection of aids to the teaching of history, publishing through THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, a detailed catalogue of the collection. Very recently the association has undertaken to publish a series of pictures illustrative of certain periods of history.

Other associations have been almost as productive. The Middle States Association has stood sponsor for the Bibliography of History for Schools, prepared by Prof. Andrews, Mr. Gambrill and Miss Tall. The North Central Association (now the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association) has for several years published an annual bibliography of history; and a committee is now acting with local history teachers' associations in the preparation of a series of syllabi of state history.

Much remains to be done by local societies in productive fields as well as in strengthening the *esprit de corps* of the body of history teachers. THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE will gladly act as the organ of such associations, printing notices and accounts of meetings and publishing their more important papers. The action of the American Historical Association makes possible a reduced subscription rate to every member of every history teachers' association. Can we not make the year 1912 memorable in the world of history teaching by a marked increase in the number of such societies, and by many additions to the membership of the older associations?

History in the Secondary School

Some Suggestions on the Reformation

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Its Connection with the Renaissance.

Most historians agree in looking upon the Reformation as an outgrowth of the Renaissance movement. The connection between the two is so close that it is difficult to separate them; the one may almost be considered as a phase of the other. In the discussion of these earlier manifestations of individual consciousness, the instructor must constantly be looking forward to the final catastrophe in the great upheaval which followed Luther's attack upon indulgences. In fact, the Protestant revolt was but the climax of that series of events which brought the medieval period to a close, and marked the dawn of a new era. It was the final application of the two great principles of the Renaissance to the domain of religion—"the appeal to the original sources and the right of individual investigation." It was a much more violent change than any which had preceded it because of the greater resisting power of the institution which was attacked—the Christian Church. "Endowed with large wealth, strong in numbers in every State, with no lack of able and thoroughly trained minds, its interests, as it regarded them, in maintaining the old were enormous, and its power of defending itself seemed scarcely to be broken." (Adams, page 422.)

The Reformation the Beginning of Modern History.

In approaching the subject of the Reformation, the instructor should not only be guided by the fact of the close relationship between this movement and the Renaissance, but he should also be mindful of its wider significance as a great world movement. It was the posting of these ninety-five theses on the door of the Wittenberg church on October 31st, 1517, rather than the fall of Constantinople in 1453, or the discovery of America in 1492 which marked the beginning of modern history. "This event," says Jaeger, "was to dominate succeeding centuries until the present time, and to determine the life of individuals and of European nations" (page 173). Professor Adams also voices this idea, emphasizing at the same time the continuity of the two movements: "In the connection established with the Reformation is to be found one of the ways in which the Renaissance movement became an important force in the other great movements of the time, and passed into the general revolution—social, political and religious—with which modern history opened" (page 384). Dr. Jaeger proceeds to hold a very interesting brief on the question of the significance of the posting of the theses as compared with the events which took place in 1453 and in 1492.

The Teacher's Attitude toward Questions of Creed.

Another important preliminary consideration for the teacher is the question of what should be his attitude toward a struggle of this character, so much of which hinged on matters of creed and dogma. Dr. Jaeger lays down in admirable fashion some general laws which may be considered applicable to situations of this character. Starting with the premise that we are teaching history, not theology, he proceeds to demonstrate the possibility of treating these events in such a way as not to offend the most delicate sensibilities, and at the same time to inculcate the great moral lessons which may be involved. The teacher is in every case to tell the truth, that is to avoid implanting false ideas, but is at the same time to "say no more than the pupil can understand—no more than is or can become the truth to him" (page 170). This great German scholar and teacher not only shows himself an adherent of that school of historians who hold that it is the business of the historian merely to ascertain "wie es eigentlich gewesen ist," but hints at a higher duty which the secondary teacher is expected to perform in inspiring the students under his charge with a spirit of fairness, a love for the truth, and an admiration for those noble qualities of mind and heart which know no bounds of creed or tongue.

Planning the Lesson for the Student.

Whatever may be the teacher's attitude toward the topical method of assigning history lessons, he should not be content, as were the teachers of a past generation, merely to assign so many

pages or paragraphs in the text-book. The very indefiniteness of history—which, by the way, has been characterized as one of its most attractive features—makes it imperative that the instructor should formulate a very definite study plan for the student. These plans are often criticized on the ground that they lead to a cut-and-dried method of class presentation. This danger, if such it is, may readily be avoided if the teacher looks upon the lesson scheme as simply a means of securing data. This material may be utilized in the class room in any way which may commend itself to the instructor. In other words, he should feel perfectly free to deviate from the letter of the plan so long as he calls for nothing which has not been impressed upon the student's mind by a careful perusal of the lesson scheme. If our students could be brought to the point where they would look upon history as suggesting so many definite problems for solution rather than so many items to be memorized, their interest in the subject would be materially increased, and they would come to the recitation with better preparation. This result may be secured by assigning the lesson as a series of questions. These should be closely related and should all focus about some central thought, clearly formulated in the mind of the instructor, toward which he proposes to direct the individual recitations. (See HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Vol. I, page 156.)

This method may be illustrated by applying it to the beginnings of the Reformation. We will suppose that the teacher has decided to formulate the central idea in those words of Beard which refer to the timeliness of the movement, rounding out the thought as given by the biographer, and expanding it into the following statement: "The time was ripe for change; the seed was cast into the ground at the right moment" by a man especially fitted for the great task—the monk, Martin Luther. A few thoughtful questions should then be framed in such a way as to enable the student readily to gather together the essential material on that part of the Reformation which falls between 1517 and 1521, when Charles V interfered to secure a settlement of the controversy. These would be on the order of the following:

- I. How did the Renaissance prepare the way for church reform?
- II. What conditions in Germany favored church reform?
- III. How did Luther's early life fit him for the work of a reformer?
- IV. What prompted Luther to attack the church? How did this attack differ, if at all, from earlier criticisms of the church?
- V. What were the great crises or turning points in Luther's life up to the Diet of Worms, and how did they affect the progress of the Reformation?
- VI. What was there about this reform movement which made it so much more significant and far-reaching than earlier movements?

Care should be exercised in directing the student to all the material to be found in the text-book. If the instructor expects to take up the earlier reform movements in any detail, e.g., the Albigensian, Waldensian, or Hussite, as suggested by Adams (pages 417-420), it might be well to ask for a review of these pages in the text-book.

It is not necessary that the instructor should call up these questions in the form or in the order in which they have been assigned. He should make it clear to the class beforehand that they are to serve merely as a guide, pointing the way to the acquisition of such information as the student should have at his command. The discussion might be precipitated by as simple a question as "What was the Reformation?" The answers to this question will suggest others apropos of the central theme from which the discussion should not be permitted to wander.

Literature.

An excellent topical analysis of the part played by Luther is to be found in O. H. Richardson, "Syllabus of Continental European

History," Lecture XLIV. The topics prepared for the syllabus of the New England History Teacher's Association are less detailed. The connection between the Renaissance and the Reformation is emphasized in Adams, "Civilization During the Middle Ages," chapters XV and XVII. The chapter on the Reformation (XVII) is particularly stimulating and helpful in its treatment of the larger aspects of the movement. This may also be said of the account in Seeborn, "Protestant Revolt." It might be possible for the

teacher to utilize the maps found there by reproducing them on a larger scale, particularly those on pages 105, 161 and 164. The standard lives of Luther are by Beard and Koestlin. Reference might also be made to the accounts in Lodge, "Close of the Middle Ages" (pages 532-533), and Johnson, "Europe in the Sixteenth Century" (pages 148-160), which discuss the influence of the Renaissance on the Reformation and Luther's indebtedness thereto.

A Series of Lessons on the Development of the English Cabinet Government

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DEWITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

The Method of Developing These Lessons.

The prime fact in the political history of Great Britain during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries is the growth of cabinet government. This, therefore, is the core about which the teacher should develop every lesson in political history during the period beginning with the reign of Charles II, and ending with the reign of George III. Many teachers are puzzled by the question as to what is the proper method to be used in review. We have all found that the old style review which waits till the end of a period of history and then attempts to restate all the facts without adding any new material is dry, and fails, in most cases, to accomplish its purpose. Review work, to be effective, should be carried on constantly. No recitation is complete unless it forces the pupil to restate some of the facts learned in previous lessons. To teachers who do not know the book, we recommend in this connection, McMurry's "Method of Recitation," where, especially in chapters VI and IX; they will find much illuminating material on this subject.

Of all topics in English history, the history of cabinet government offers, perhaps, the best opportunity to use this method. The history of the Civil War and the Commonwealth has been finished. The teacher is now ready to take up the story of modern English history. Each lesson will add something to the story of the development of cabinet government; each lesson will force the student to review what he already knows. Before the first lesson begins, the teacher should therefore have clearly in mind the goal which he intends to reach in his last lesson—a clear understanding on the part of his pupils of the modern system of English government. Not that the teacher should announce this goal to his classes—to do so would be to violate the primary rule of pedagogics; that children should never be forced to accept facts which are unrelated to their apprehensive mass. But in the mind of the teacher this goal should be constantly present, and each lesson, beginning with the facts that the pupil already knows, should add something to the story of the development of this modern system of government.

1. The English cabinet, like every other vital English institution, is the result of slow, almost unconscious growth. Its roots are to be found in institutions as old as the Privy Council and the group of king's favorites.

2. The cabinet, as such, has no legal authority—its functions are accomplished by recourse to a series of legal fictions.

3. The cabinet consists of a group of ten or fifteen of the king's principal ministers.

4. These ministers, in theory, hold office by appointment from the king and are responsible for their actions to him—in fact, the House of Commons indirectly designates them, and they are responsible for their actions to the majority party. As a result there has grown up in England a perfect system of party government.

5. The whole group of ministers is bound to act together. Each one is bound to support and defend the actions of his colleagues; each one is bound to subordinate his will and his actions, to the veto of his fellows.

6. At the head of the cabinet stands a prime minister, an officer unknown to the law, yet with definite functions recognized by the English constitution.

First Lessons to be Given in Connection with the History of Charles II.

With these six propositions clearly in mind, the teacher is ready to begin his lessons on modern English political history. First, he must review the story of the relations between the king and his ministers, the king and parliament, during the sixteenth and early seventeenth century. Here he must bring out the fact that the king's ministers acted entirely under the royal orders, that they

owed nothing to their colleagues, that their policy was dictated entirely by their personal predilections and by the desires of the king, that the will of parliament was in no way effective in checking their actions. It was these facts that ultimately led to the Civil War.

Even in the beginning of the reign of Charles II, these propositions were still largely true except that, as a result of the Civil War, the king was forced to recognize his responsibility to parliament. Still Charles II never ceased to plot and scheme to avoid this responsibility. In the early years of his reign he used the Earl of Clarendon in order to resist the growing encroachments of parliament upon the prerogatives of the crown. Ultimately Clarendon fell from favor, was impeached by the House of Commons, and found refuge from conviction in France.

Thereafter, Charles exercised his royal rights through a group of five ministers, the Cabal. These ministers were in no way responsible to each other. Each of them acted directly under orders from the king, each followed his individual policy; no joint meetings were held, no general policy evolved. One by one they were dismissed or resigned as they ceased to be useful to Charles in his dealings with parliament. To Charles his ministers were an easy means of shifting responsibility from his own shoulders. When he had led them into proposals which failed to suit the temper of parliament he dismissed them and appointed other scapegoats in their place. This group of ministers resembles the modern cabinet in one particular only—by consulting with them and getting them to validate his acts, the king avoided the necessity of calling together his entire Privy Council. Since these ministers were members of the Privy Council and since no specified quorum was necessary in the Council the king could act with them as well as with the entire body.

By the end of Charles II's reign, though the king did not acknowledge that parliament had any right to interfere with him in the choice of his ministers, yet, by dismissing ministers who had lost their popularity, he practically recognized that the ministers of the crown were responsible to the law-making body as well as to the king.

In the reign of Charles II, too, we have the beginnings of party government. Before the Restoration, the meetings of parliament had been sporadic. From 1660 on, parliament met regularly. Before the Restoration, during the time of James I and Charles I, members of parliament had taken sides and voted together only on particular specific questions; but such grouping was temporary and lacked all the machinery connected with modern party government. In the reign of Charles II, when the king and parliament were quarreling over the Exclusion Bill, we begin to get the first evidences of regularly organized political parties.

As yet there is no relation between the growing responsibility of the king's ministers to parliament and these new political parties, but as time goes on the inevitable is bound to happen: the king's ministers, who are responsible to parliament will become responsible to the dominant political party in the House of Commons.

Further Developments in Connection with Lessons on William III.

James II attempted to reassert and to act upon the principles which had governed his father, Charles I, in his dealings with parliament. The Revolution of 1688 resulted. William III's sole claim to the throne rested upon the action of parliament. From the beginnings of his reign he recognized the fact that his actions would be limited by the will of parliament, that his dealings with parliament must be conducted through the agency of his ministers. As first he attempted to ignore the existence of political parties and selected his ministers from among the prominent men of both sides. Before long, however, he recognized that this led to con-

fusion and constant quarreling and consequently, in 1694, he dismissed all his Tory ministers and replaced them by members of the dominant Whig party. Thus for the first time we have as a clearly recognized principle the fact that the ministry must all belong to the party in majority in the House of Commons.

Charles II had consulted his ministers individually. Often he acted against their advice; sometimes without their knowledge. William began the practice of consulting his principal ministers—the lesser ones were not called into council—in a body. These consultations were regularly held in the king's private cabinet, hence the name—Cabinet Meetings. This was an inevitable step: if the ministers were to share their responsibility in common, they must all know in common the action which the king proposed to take, and so, before the end of William's reign it had become an accepted principle that the King's principal ministers would share in common the responsibility for royal actions.

Throughout his reign, William III insisted that his opinion should have preponderating weight in the cabinet meetings. Queen Anne, too, a Tory by predilection, attempted to enforce this rule. But Anne failed—against her wishes the Whigs came into power

in 1705, and the Queen was forced to sink her preferences in the deliberations of her cabinet. Thus the action of the body becomes independent of the will of the sovereign and by indirection, the principle that their action is controlled by the will of the dominant party in the House of Commons is established.

Two more facts remain to be added. Up to the accession of George I, the sovereign regularly was present and took part in cabinet discussions; in consequence, no single minister ever obtained a preponderating influence in its deliberation. Owing to conditions with which every teacher is familiar, George I soon ceased to attend cabinet meetings; instead he entrusted the leadership to one of his ministers and thus there grew up the last condition which completes the modern system of government in England; viz., (1) that the king no longer takes part in cabinet meetings, and (2) that one of the ministers is recognized as the Prime Minister.

George III, as we know, attempted to destroy the solidarity of the cabinet system, attempted once more to force his personal will upon parliament; but George III failed, and since then England has recognized the cabinet system as an essential part of its constitution.

Some Practical Suggestions on the Teaching of the Growth of United States Territory

BY FRANK H. MILLER, FLUSHING HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

Within the limits of this article I shall attempt nothing erudite or exceptional. I do not flatter myself that there is anything particularly unique in my method. Probably the devices which I use are much the same as those used by hundred of other teachers.

I shall deal here only with the methods which I use in teaching the growth of territory on the American Continent; as to the insular possessions, they belong naturally to a different set of lessons which must come much later in the term.

To my mind, an essential principle of good history teaching is that each lesson should emphasize one broad topic and subordinate everything else in the lesson to this end. This applies especially to the lessons on the acquisition of territory, as the teacher has more faults to contend with here than almost anywhere else in the text-book. With this end in view, I spend at least two recitations on the growth of territory in connection with the Mexican War, having passed over this topic very briefly at earlier periods. At this time I expect to round up the following topics:

I. The map, showing just what land was acquired at each cession.

II. The treaties by which these lands were acquired.

III. How the territories were governed.

IV. The settlement and growth of the West, with the political and economic results.

1. The most important question for the teacher is how much of this should have been taught before he comes to the Mexican War. In saying that these topics should be subordinated in earlier lessons, I do not mean to say that they should have been altogether omitted. In teaching the French and Indian War, for instance, I have two maps drawn in the note books,—one showing the possession of the English in 1750, the other showing the results of the war. Again after the Revolutionary War is finished, another map is drawn showing the United States as it was in 1783, giving the claims of the States to the western territory. In this map the northwest territory is especially prominent and across the entire western territory the pupils write, "*ceded to the United States in 1781.*" This is the last map which the students draw until we get to the Mexican War; but in connection with the Louisiana Purchase we indicate carefully on the wall map the territory which was acquired, bringing out the acquisition of West Florida in this connection. At the same time we develop the fact that the United States *did not* get Texas and Oregon by this purchase. Thus the map work of the pupil on the territory west of the Mississippi is deferred to the time when he can make it complete.

With the Mexican cessions we are ready to draw a complete map of the United States. I prefer to have this map made in colors. A colored map of his own is just as helpful to a pupil as a colored map in a book is to an adult. Furthermore, the pupil takes an interest in a colored map which he has made, which he does not take in filling in a mere outline. I frequently have the colors put in during the recitation period, distributing crayons for this purpose. All that I have to say in favor of this somewhat elementary exercise is that the results seem to justify it.

II. Now as to the second topic,—the treaties by which the territory was acquired. These I deal with as they appear in the text-book, but they are thoroughly reviewed when we come to study finally the topic *Foreign Relations*. We do not study them directly under the topic, *Growth of Territory*.

III. The government of territories is treated chiefly when we are considering the Northwest Ordinance, of which the pupils are required to make an abstract in their note books, and again in the lessons on Civics where the Government under the Northwest Ordinance is compared with the present administration of insular dependencies.

IV. The political results of the acquisition of territory are emphasized chiefly in connection with the lessons on the western land cessions of the States, and in connection with the Louisiana Purchase. Here it is especially important to show the effect of the acquisition of territory upon the interpretation of the Constitution:

1. By forcing Jefferson and his party to accept a liberal construction of the Constitution.

2. By increasing the power of the Central Government in giving it vast tracts of land to govern directly and an immense amount of public land to dispose of.

3. By providing for new States which have been created by the Central Government, and hence were not influenced by the State sovereignty ideas which were so prevalent in the original States.

The settlement of this western territory and the economic results can best be dealt with by having a group of topics assigned for library work. These topics are presented in class, notes are taken by the pupils, and all are held responsible in a test for the main points in every topic presented. These are the topics which I am using at present, but they can, of course, be varied according to the library facilities:

1. Boone in Kentucky—Roosevelt's *Winning of the West*, Vol. I.

2. George Rogers Clark's Conquest of the Northwest—Roosevelt's *Winning of the West*, Vol. I.

3. The Men of the West—Roosevelt's *Winning of the West*.

4. Resources of the West—Bullock's *Economics*.

5. Life in the West—Parkman's *Oregon Trail*.

6. Government of Territories in the Early Period—Willoughby's *Territories and Dependencies*, pp. 27-47.

7. Mark Twain's—*Life on the Mississippi*, selected chapters.

As to the division of time on this work, I assign the map of the United States as indicated above as one lesson. While these maps are being checked up the topics are being recited. The topics have been assigned some two weeks before and represent more work than is required for an ordinary lesson. After checking up the maps, they are criticised and attention is called to any errors. The next day the reports on topics are completed and a test is given if time permits. This test is usually postponed, however, till the time of the regular hour test in which I usually include one question on the map, two on the topics given in class, and one on the treaties.

I prefer to leave the map work on slavery until the Civil War is reached. Then a map is drawn, showing the Mason and Dixon Line, the Missouri Compromise Line, and the territory opened to slavery by the Compromise of 1850, and the Kansas-Nebraska Act. On this map, too, are indicated the States in which slavery was tinued after the Emancipation Proclamation.

To sum up, the growth of territory should be emphasized in various connections, the stress being laid on government in connection legal in 1861, those which seceded and those in which slavery con- with the Northwest Ordinance, on political influence in connection with the Louisiana Purchase, and the treaties and map work in dealing with the results of the Mexican War.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES

Mrs. A. Leslie Walker, Vassar '06, recently spoke to the History department and the Hellenic Society on her work in excavating in Greece.

There has been published as Senate document No. 122, 62d. Congress, 2d. session, an address delivered before the Literary and Historical Association of North Carolina, at Raleigh, on The Constitution, and Its Makers, by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge. The address deals especially with the initiative, referendum and the recall.

A text-book on Economics by Dr. Henry R. Burch, head of the department of history and economics, Central Manual Training School, Philadelphia, will shortly be published by the MacMillan Company.

Miss Elizabeth Rowell of the Broadway High School, Seattle, Washington, is on a year's leave of absence.

Dr. Arthur C. Howland has been made Professor of Medieval History in the University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton has been appointed head of the department of history in the new Central High School, Newark, N. J.

Prof. Edward P. Cheyney, of the University of Pennsylvania, sailed on February 19, for a six-months' European visit.

Prof. George L. Burr, of Cornell University, started early this year upon a trip to Italy and Greece.

Dr. I. J. Cox, of the University of Cincinnati, is spending the scholastic year 1911-12, at the University of Pennsylvania.

Mr. Albert Cook Myers returned in December, from England, where he made much progress in the collection and arrangement of material for his edition of the works of William Penn.

The Trenton (N. J.) Conference of history teachers held its annual session at the State Normal School, on Saturday, February 17. The program included an exhibition of students' work and aids in history teaching; a report by Miss Sarah A. Dynes upon "Plans of the American Historical Association for improving the quality of history teaching in the grades"; the annual address, entitled, "The Dead Past and the Living Present," by Professor Frank A. Fetter, of Princeton University; and a general discussion opened by Prof. Paul Van Dyke. Over forty members of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, are within the territory of the Trenton Conference.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The Council has voted to hold the annual Spring Meeting in Springfield, Mass., on Friday and Saturday, April 19-20, and a committee consisting of Dr. Jessie M. Law, Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, and the secretary, was appointed to make local arrangements. There will be an address on Friday evening, which will be open to the public. On Saturday morning the Association will discuss the question: The Relation of the Social Sciences to Community Affairs. The usual luncheon for members and their guests will follow the morning session. The Association held its first meeting outside of Boston several years ago in Springfield.

The Council voted to contribute to the support of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

Encouraging reports are received from the sub-committee on the publication of the historical pictures, and several new series are contemplated.

NEBRASKA ASSOCIATION.

The Nebraska Association met at Omaha on November 9, 1911, as a part of the State Teachers' Association. The papers were good, and the discussion spirited from start to finish. Superintendent Whitehead of Gothenburg discussed "The Minimum Time and Equipment for Teaching History in Elementary Schools that are Adjuncts of Accredited High Schools." He pointed out the great problem teachers are still wrestling with: How teach history right and at the same time fit the students to pass an examination for the teachers' certificate, in the time assigned.

Prof. C. E. Persinger of the University of Nebraska, presented a report on a course of study in history for the grades. A comparative study was made of his suggested course and several others. A lively discussion followed.

The principal address of the afternoon was given by Dr. Fred Morrow Fling on "How May the Nebraska History Teachers' Association Best Contribute Aid to Improve History Teaching in Elementary and Secondary Schools." As a result of this address, several movements for better results were started, the chief one being a plan for a meeting of the Association, unattached to any other meeting, sometime in April.

The new officers are President, Mrs. Ada I. Atkinson, Omaha; Secretary-treasurer, Mattie Cook Ellis, Penn.

A Local History Club at the State Normal School, Kearney, Neb., is doing valuable work in collecting and studying material for a history of Nebraska. The work is in charge of Professor C. N. Anderson, head of the department of history and economics.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

For the convenience of its readers and to stimulate the work of organization, "The Magazine" will print from time to time, a list of the associations, with the names and addresses of the secretaries. Will our readers help us fill in the gaps, and keep us informed of changes in the secretarial offices?

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—W. G. Leland, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., secretary.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.—H. W. Edwards, Berkeley, secretary.

CALIFORNIA.—Maude Stevens, Palo Alto High School, secretary.

COLORADO.—Prof. James S. Willard, chairman, Boulder, Col.

INDIANA.—Professor Harriet Palmer, Franklin, secretary.

KANSAS.—J. Raymond G. Taylor, Manhattan, secretary.

MARYLAND.—Ella V. Ricker, 700 Carrollton Avenue, Baltimore, secretary.

MIDDLE STATES.—Prof. Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, New York City, secretary.

MILWAUKEE CONFERENCE.—Informally organized.

MISSISSIPPI.—H. L. McCleskey, Hazelhurst, secretary.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, TEACHERS' SECTION.—Howard C. Hill, Oak Park, Ill., secretary.

MISSOURI.—Professor Eugene Fair, Kirksville, secretary.

NEBRASKA.—Professor C. N. Anderson, Kearney, president.

NEW ENGLAND.—Mr. W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass., N. J., secretary.

NEW YORK (N. Y.) CONFERENCE.—Moses Weld Ware, Morristown, North Dakota Association.—H. L. Rockwood, Enderlin, president.

SEATTLE CONFERENCE.—Informally organized.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Prof. Carl Christophelsmeir, Vermillion, president.

TRENTON, (N. J.) CONFERENCE.—Sarah A. Dynes, State Normal School, secretary.

TWIN CITY HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Adelaide Underhill, Poughkeepsie, secretary.

WASHINGTON (STATE) HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Prof. L. T. Jackson, Washington State College, chairman.

WISCONSIN.—Prof. Arthur D. S. Gillett, Superior, secretary.

ENGLISH HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Professor Tout presided at the annual conference of the Historical Association in Manchester, England. During the discussion on the question of the teaching of history in elementary schools, a resolution was moved to the effect that the first charge on the time of elementary schools should be a course of historical instruction suffi-

cient to give children as clear an idea as possible of the growth and nature of the British state, and of their rights and duties as citizens.

The mover of the resolution, Mr. Adkins, explained that the school course for older children covered the whole of English history, and that in order to meet the needs of those children who moved from school to school a universal syllabus should be adopted.

History, the speaker maintained, should be at least as coherent as geography; the best way, perhaps, of making history coherent was to seek out its economic basis. Modern questions, he maintained, should be studied on the lines of their historic development, and the larger views of history required to make British history intelligible might be given in connection with Scripture lessons.

A discussion ensued, during which the majority of the speakers expressed their approval of the motion. One speaker declared that enthusiasm for history was growing in elementary schools, but he maintained that it should not take precedence of reading, writing and arithmetic, and he proposed an amendment to this effect, but it was defeated by a large majority.

Professor Leonard explained how frequently it had been proposed that steps should be taken for teaching history to working men and that not only in clubs and adult classes, but that the universities themselves should take the matter up. He declared that the time had come when "we should realize as an association that we must deal with these questions of teaching history to workmen." The professor referred, also, amid considerable laughter, to the necessity of teaching history to journalists.

THE AMERICAN JEWISH HISTORICAL SOCIETY.

The 20th annual meeting of the American Jewish Historical Society was held in Boston, February 11-13. Large audiences were in attendance and numerous interesting papers were read, among which may be mentioned a Note on the Jewish Vestry Bill of Barbados, by Dr. Friedenwald, and Early Jewish Residents in Massachusetts, by Lee M. Friedman, of Boston. In the latter paper the speaker told of the first Jewish cemetery in the city started in 1733, upon the site now occupied by the building at 15-17 Chamber street. The first Jew known in Boston was Isaac Abraham, who in 1684 came to Boston and sold a vessel.

This was the first meeting of the association in Boston since its organization.

POLITICAL EDUCATIONAL LEAGUE.

There has been organized in New York City a movement for the practical study of political activities and machinery. The work is under the direction of Mr. S. Gerschauck, of the New York Public Library, Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue. The following description gives the purposes and methods of the league: The Political Educational League has been organized for the purpose of instructing young men in the theoretical and practical activities of our city, state and national government. Secondly, to study the science of government. Thirdly, to develop good citizenship.

I. The Branch Club will meet on the second and fourth Saturday of the month as a modelled Board of Aldermen. At such meetings, rules, regulations and ordinances within the scope of the Board as indicated by the city's charter will be proposed, discussed and acted upon as the result of the study, reading and observation as given below. This will give each member training and experience in parliamentary procedure, practice in debate and develop the power of extemporaneous speaking.

II. Each member will be appointed as the head of one of the various departments as mentioned in the charter, viz.: mayor, police commissioner, fire commissioner, etc. Each member in his official capacity will devote such time as he may have to the following task; first, study the duties and powers of his office; secondly, to investigate the character of the office; thirdly to study and read all the works and articles pertaining to his office or field of work; fourthly, to observe the exercise of his office, by visiting the city official of which he is the type; lastly, to render reports of suggestions for improvements in the work of his office. At each meeting, only two or three reports will be rendered, this will in routine give each member from four to six months time to prepare his paper.

III. At each meeting one of two classes of topics will be assigned for general discussion; the former, specific phases of municipal activities; e. g., fire prevention, subway situation, municipal sanitation, etc., the latter, new theories of political science; e. g., "Short Ballot," "Commission Form of Government," "Referendum," etc. In addition to these general discussions and papers,

leading men, either city official in the former case, or prominent exponent of the movement in the latter case, will be invited to give short talks on their respective fields, followed by questions.

IV. At frequent intervals, primaries and conventions will be held, composed of all the members of all the clubs established as delegates, at which conventions platforms will be made and such other duties performed as at the national conventions.

V. In the preparation of papers, briefs and reports, the personal assistance of the director will be given to each member, who will also guide in the preparation of bibliographies and in the use of books, magazines and source materials at the various branches and at the Main Library of the New York Public Library and at the university libraries.

THE TRENTON CONFERENCE.

The Trenton Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held its regular meeting on Saturday afternoon, February 17th, at the State Normal School.

The meeting was the largest of any that has yet been held. There were 150 persons present. The membership is a little less than half that number. An opportunity was given the members to examine the latest books suitable for grades 1 to 8 inclusive, written work of pupils in grades 6, 7 and 8, as well as desk books for teachers and teachers' plans and outlines for conducting work in grades below the 6th. All the teachers seemed to appreciate the privilege and utilized the hour before and the hour after the formal program in such inspection.

The speaker of the afternoon was Professor Frank A. Fetter, Professor of Economics at Princeton University. The subject of his address was "The Dead Past and the Living Present." In his opening remarks he stated that economists were indebted to history to a greater degree than to any other of the sister subjects.

In a few masterly sentences he sketched the history of the early schools of economists and then proceeded to outline the character of work done by the Younger Historical School of Economists. The indebtedness of this later school to history was clearly and forcibly described and illustrated. That neither subject could be understood without a knowledge of the other was emphasized. He made a plea for a more intimate knowledge of economics on the part of teachers of history so that the dead past may not remain dead, and added that economists who are unfamiliar with the past cannot understand the living present. The address was pleasing, suggestive, stimulating and scholarly.

In the discussion that followed Professor Paul van Dyke, of Princeton University, expressed his agreement with the views held by Professor Fetter, and added that to his mind the fundamental difference between an educated and an uneducated man is that the former has a reverence for existing institutions because he knows what they have cost and the other never realizes their worth. He regretted that some of our politicians really seem to believe that a man's action is always determined by self-interest. They cannot understand the motive force of the ideals which a man cherishes.

Dr. James M. Green, principal of the State Normal School at Trenton made a plea for simplicity and concreteness in teaching history and expressed his appreciation of the strong, helpful paper of Professor Fetter. The Executive Committee of this Conference is composed of Dr. E. Mackey, City Superintendent of Schools of Trenton (chairman), Professor Paul van Dyke, of Princeton University and Sarah A. Dyers, of the department of history in the New Jersey State Normal School of Trenton (secretary).

KANSAS HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

At the meeting of the History and Sociology Round Table of the State Teachers' Association in Topeka, November 10, 1911, the organization of the Kansas History Teachers' Association begun the year before was completed, a constitution adopted and officers elected for 1912 as follows: President, Professor Frank H. Hodder, Lawrence, Kan.; vice-president, J. B. Hitt, Everest, Kan.; secretary-treasurer, Raymond G. Taylor, Manhattan, Kan. One meeting is to be held annually in connection with the meetings of the State Teachers' Association, and a second meeting may be held in the spring subject to call by the Executive Committee, which is composed of the above-named officers.

At this November meeting the following papers were read and discussed: "The History Recitation," Professor Carl Becker, of the University of Kansas; "The Use of Facts in History Teaching," W. S. Robb, Superintendent of Eureka, Kansas, schools; "The Study of Industrial History," Raymond G. Taylor of the State Agricultural College.

Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, Ph.D., EDITOR.

Conducted with the co-operation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford, Jr. University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address Box 999, Stanford University, Cal.)

—Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the Year 1909: Writings on American History, 1909, by Grace G. Griffin. This may also be secured separately.

—In the Bookman for January, James Schouler considers "President Johnson and Posterity," or what will be the final verdict upon his career.

—In the American Journal of International Law for October, Amos S. Hershey presents a necessarily summary view of "The History of International Relations during Antiquity and the Middle Ages."

—In Harper's Weekly (January 13) Gaillard Hunt discusses "Our Troublesome Treaty with Russia." To show the intent of the treaty he gives the history of the negotiations with Russia from 1783 to its formation in 1832, inclining to take the view that it was made for commercial purposes only. Tracing its application and interpretation, he concludes that Russia to-day cannot justly be charged with violating its revisions.

—In the William and Mary College Quarterly for October, is printed a portion of the Diary of Edmund Ruffin minutely describing the attack on Fort Sumter, at which he claims to have fired the first shot. Mr. Ruffin, the editor tells us, was a native of Virginia, but "When he found that Virginia would not secede, he exercised the right of expatriation, removed from that State and became 'a citizen of the seceded Confederate States.'"

—"A Reading Journey through South America" is a continued article in the Chautauqua, written in conjunction with the Pan American Union by Harry Weston Van Dyke. The January number deals with Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia. Montevideo, unimportant until thirty years ago, is now a modern city of 400,000 inhabitants. Paraguay, until 1873 was kept isolated from the world by its despotic rulers and as a result is undeveloped. Bolivia has the distinction of being the highest inhabited land on the earth, with the possible exception of Tibet. From one mountain near Potosi four billions dollars worth of silver has been taken since 1545.

—The general advance of the countries of South America is reflected in an article in the Harper's Weekly for January 27, by John A. Mathews upon the restoration of the credit of Columbia by President Restrepo.

—"The History of Gold Mining in the United States" (Popular Science Monthly, February), by Professor R. A. F. Penrose, Jr., contains many suggestive points for the historical student, such as the fear of the Mission Fathers that the disclosure of the presence of gold would cause a repetition of the old Mexican and Peruvian scenes of cruelty to their charges; also, the resort to mining by the victims of the panics of 1857, 1893, and 1907, and of the discharged soldiers of the Civil War.

—The continued paper on 'The Constitutional Movement in Prussia from 1840 to 1847' (P. Devinat, Revue Historique, Jan.-Feb.) is this time devoted to Public Opinion before the Publication of the Ordinances of 1847, the social problem, religious agitation, political opposition. Under the discussion of the social problem we note the tropical treatment of the miserable condition of the laborers in a time of great industrial prosperity—"living upon potatoes and salt,"—the workmen's revolts of 1843-1844,—the formation of societies for the amelioration of their condition, the development of socialistic thought, the formation of secret societies to resist governmental repression.

After an analysis of some "Famous autobiographies," namely those of Cellini, Rousseau, Gibbon, Goethe, Mill and Spencer, the writer in the Edinburgh Review for October reaches various interesting conclusions. He believes their greatness was not due to ambition or to force of will, but was rather due to living their natural lives at periods peculiarly responsive to their influence. Furthermore, that there is no necessary connection between genius and morality, but rather that genius is "closely connected with unconventionality, or even with eccentricity."

—The publication of "British Correspondence concerning Texas," under the editorship of Professor E. D. Adams, begun in the January issue of the Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association, will run through several numbers. A few documents date from as early as 1837, but the bulk of them relate to the period after 1840, when England actively showed its approval of the application of Texas for recognition. They relate to the political, social and industrial conditions of the period.

—The Cossacks arose, according to Mme. Jartintzoff (Fortnightly Review, January, The Past of the Russian Cossacks) as the natural outcome of Polish religious persecutions, Turkish raids, and Russians, some Poles, some men from the minor Slavonic tribes, even some Tartars. They called themselves "Kossaki," a Tartar word meaning free men, free warriors, or guards, which can be traced back to the eleventh century. At first their personal feelings and requirements made them provide for themselves and guard their own liberty only. . . . Getting stronger and stronger, and more and more numerous through the influx of newcomers, the Kossaki became in reality the only fighting force that kept back the Tartars. . . ."

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Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

ALLEN, CHARLES FLETCHER. David Crockett. Scout, Small Boy, Pilgrim, Mountaineer, Soldier, Bear-hunter, and Congressman. The defender of the Alamo. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott. Pp. 308. \$1.50.

This is a very comprehensive title for a book written in a rambling and unattractive style and attempting nothing more serious than a wordy account of the every-day happenings in the life of David Crockett. The author follows him pertinaciously from the day he is born until he is lying dead under the walls of the Alamo, but all the while the reader feels that the author has no more than a journalistic grasp of his subject.

The casual reader might peruse the whole book with no conception of the significance of the period as far as any help from the author is concerned.

On the other hand, there are numerous good stories of Crockett's hunting adventures, many of which are given in Crockett's own words—taken from his autobiography. Many boys will gladly read the book for the stories, but it cannot be taken seriously as an historical work.

Carl E. Pray.

SKEAT, WALTER W. The Past at Our Doors. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. x, 198. 50c.

There is a larger and richer field of opportunity than many appreciate in the chance to stimulate the interest of the student of history by pointing out to him the many ways in which his every-day present is under obligation to the past, even to that which seems unprofitably far away. Mr. Skeat has concerned himself mostly with origins not more remote than in medieval times, and under the captions,—"The Story of Our Food," "The Story of Our Dress," "The Story of Our Homes,"—has turned up some of the "deep soil of common usage" and uncovered interesting facts. Thus he illustrates the blending of the elements in the history of the English people by calling attention to the Saxon origin of the words "ox," "sheep," "calf," "pig," and "fowl," which the Saxon peasant raised, and the Norman origin of "beef," "mutton," "veal," "pork," "bacon" and "poultry," which the Norman butcher handled. Again, he points out that "corn," "oats," "rye," "wheat," "barley," "peas," "beans," "sow," "reap," "thresh," "mow," "spade," "scythe," "rake," and "furrow," are all Saxon words and by their origin prove that the Normans, as a race, stood aloof in England from field work, which they left to the Saxon peasantry.

On the whole the book has much more suggestiveness for the English reader than for the American, as very many of the survivals which the author explains do not obtain in this country; yet, for teachers whose attention has not been attracted already to this phase of history by such stimulating books as Trench's "On the Study of Words," and Wright's "The Homes of Other Days," Skeat's little book will have value.

Wayland J. Chase.

SHEPHERD, WM. R. Historical Atlas. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xi, 216. 94. \$2.50.

The first impression that the reviewer of this volume gets is of its wide scope and comprehensiveness. Here are more than 200 pages of map plates and 94 pages of index, containing 3 columns to the page. Every recognized field of history is covered and provision is made for the needs of the student of America, as well as of European history, with their wide-flung world connections. Moreover, this has been done with great detail and fullness. Thus with more than 100 small maps of less than one half page size, and more than 70 of about one-half page each, there are more than 60 full page maps, 37 of two pages each, and 2 of four pages. The variety of cartographic material is surprising, including as it does, not only very many maps of small geographic areas, but also city plans of Jerusalem ancient and medieval, Rome imperial and medieval, Athens, Olympia, Constantinople, London in 1300, Paris and Versailles in 1789, and full page plans of a medieval monastery and a medieval manor. The scheme of colors is such as to produce generally a clearness of location and demarcation: and this is further effected by giving sufficient space to those maps which need to be made on a large scale. The advantageous device is frequently employed of placing a unit of area, such as the state of Illinois, upon the margin of the pages used to display an especially extensive region. The physical, as well as the political, features of historical

geography are duly emphasized. This is but a partial list of the excellent features which make it the most comprehensive historical atlas printed in English. It is a very serviceable tool for the high school student.

Wayland J. Chase.

PERKINS, JAMES BRECK. France in the American Revolution. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. Pp. xix, 544. \$2.00

Mr. Perkins' long study and writings in French history make him peculiarly well-qualified for this work. His knowledge of France, and feeling for her, does not in any way interfere with his staunch American spirit, but enables him to judge fairly, with a keen appreciation of the position of both sides. It seems as though the author realized his place as arbiter between conflicting parties, for he has done more careful work in this, his latest book, than in his earlier works on French history, good as they are.

Yet, his style does not deteriorate through carefulness of statement. There is not quite the lightness of touch found in his purely French histories, but the same graceful style, set off with a subtle humor that pervades every chapter without asserting itself unduly, is in evidence throughout the whole work. The book deals with the personal element very largely and every character moves in the pages as a real human being with a personality of his own,—there are no lay figures in Perkins' books.

There are large guarantees for this history from the fact that Professor Jameson read the manuscript and Professor Van Tyne verified the references. The introduction is by the French Ambassador, M. Jusserand, who emphasizes very forcibly the point that France helped America largely because the French people were enthusiastic for the cause of liberty and not primarily for revenge on England.

From a book so filled with good things attractively written it is difficult to make selections for especial mention in so short a review. The adroit and persevering diplomacy of Vergennes; the devoted loyalty of Beaumarchais who was determined to believe that the American States would be grateful for help in their time of need and would pay him for money and supplies when they were able to do so; the meddlesome indiscretions of Arthur Lee; the almost preternatural finesse and wisdom of Franklin who always got what no one else could from the French government and more than any other government ever gave under similar circumstances; the naive effrontery of the American privateers in the French ports who demanded everything and usually got it; La Fayette's services and loyalty to Washington; *French Cash!*; and the treaty, concerning which the author takes direct and positive issue with the suspicions and jealousies of John Adams and John Jay and asserts with proofs that Vergennes and the French government were as true to the American cause as when they first signed the treaty of alliance.

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